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## A SYMPOSIUM

ON THE VALUE OF HUMANISTIC, PARTICULARLY CLASSICAL,  
STUDIES AS A PREPARATION FOR THE STUDY OF LAW, FROM  
THE POINT OF VIEW OF THE PROFESSION<sup>1</sup>

### I. THE VALUE TO THE LAWYER OF TRAINING IN THE CLASSICS

MERRITT STARR  
Of the Chicago Bar

In most of the summaries of the faculties and qualities employed by the lawyer, a prominent place is given to the primary faculty of "common sense." This means "the correct sense of common things"—that is, sound judgment in affairs, or sound judgment. The significance of this and its bearing upon our subject are found in the emphasis laid upon "judgment" as the lawyer's chief requisite.

Starting with native endowments of intelligence and common sense, in what should the lawyer seek training by his pre-

<sup>1</sup> Part of the programme of the Classical Conference at Ann Arbor, Mich., March 27, 1907.

Through the kind assistance of the Board of Regents of the University of Michigan and the courtesy of the publishers of the *School Review*, it has been possible to secure a number of reprints of this symposium for distribution. Those desiring a copy may address (inclosing a two-cent stamp for postage) MR. LOUIS P. JOCELYN, Secretary Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, South Division St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

The Symposium will be continued, with a discussion of the value of humanistic studies as a preparation for the study of theology, at the Classical Conference of 1908. The papers and addresses upon "The Value of Humanistic, Particularly Classical, Studies as a Preparation for the Study of Medicine and of Engineering," at the Conference of 1906, were published in the *School Review*, Vol. XIV (1906), pp. 389-414.

liminary education; and what studies will most aid him to such training? The answer is self-evident—training in judgment, and training in affairs. Conceding at once that training in the classics does not give training in affairs, it is sufficient for our purpose to maintain that training in the classics does give training in judgment. And here is the *crux* of the whole matter. The advocates of training in affairs have deemed the case settled by the admission that such training is necessary, and that it is not afforded by the classics. No question is made or admitted of the proposition that the lawyer needs training in affairs, and that he cannot get that training from the classics. That must be obtained in some other way.

But it is maintained for the classics (1) that they do in a superior degree give training in judgment; and (2) that training in affairs is in a way inevitable, while training in judgment is not; and that therefore the training which needs the solicitude of the teacher, the pupil, and the public is training in judgment.

The contentious work of the lawyer consists largely of such as the following:

1. The *ascertainment* of facts and proofs of facts.
2. The *ascertainment of the law* and of the authoritative statement of the law.
3. The *interpretation* of the law, to develop its relation and application to the facts.
4. *Expressional* work, viz.: The convincing the tribunal, and persuading it to adopt his view.
5. The *record-making* work, which secures the correct and permanent recording and carrying into effect of the result attained.

Each of these has its counterpart operation; thus:

- 1a. Ascertainment of *want* of facts, or facts of disproof of the opponent's contention.
- 2a. Ascertainment of dominant or distinguishing rules of law eliminating the rules relied on by the opponent.
- 3a. Interpretation of the facts and rules relied on by the opponent, in order to develop their want of relation and application to each other and defeat the conclusion contended for by the opponent.
- 4a. Expressional work in inducing the tribunal to reject the course sought by the opponent.
- 5a. The record-making work of the defeated lawyer, viz., the securing of a record disclosing the *errors* of the court upon which an appeal may be based and a reversal secured.

The advisory work of the lawyer involves all these steps, and requires something more, viz., the carrying-on of all these operations *in advance* of the event, in order to guide the client and so direct his conduct that when the event occurs it shall inure to the client's welfare. It involves the carrying-on of the *entire transaction*, including the lawsuit itself, in thought and imagination, the ascertainment of the probable result, and the direction of the client's steps to avoid dangers and secure the benefits involved. And this advisory work constitutes by far the greater portion of the lawyer's task. What faculties are most employed in it? The answer is plain:

In (1), the *ascertainment of facts*, the faculty most employed is that of *judgment*, the faculty which *measures, weighs, compares, contrasts, and balances* (a) the conflicting statements of witnesses; (b) the conflicting phases of a complicated state of facts; (c) the conflicting motives, interests, prejudices, and tendencies of the parties and the witnesses.

In (2), the *ascertainment of law*, the faculty most employed is that of judgment which *measures, weighs, compares, and balances* the seemingly conflicting statements of the law from different precedents, statutes, and principles; that determines which precedent, which statute, which principle dominates the matter in hand, takes it out from under the operation of some other, and so controls the result.

In (3), *interpretation*, the faculty most employed is that of judgment which *measures, weighs, compares, and balances* the evidences and reasons for conflicting interpretations, and selects the one which should prevail.

But here another set of faculties bears an important part in the lawyer's work, viz., the faculties which discover and develop the diverse meanings of a rule, viz., the *dialectic* faculties. Those are the faculties of critical examination or analysis, of logic, of "invention" (i. e., "discovery" of meanings and expression), of discussion; and with the operation of each of these the use of the faculty of judgment is interwoven.

In (4), *the expressional work*, the dialectic and the *rhetorical* faculties are all brought into play. The latter include the

entire range of the language faculties—those of composition, systematic arrangement, style, memory, and active expression. In the employment and control of these language faculties the faculties of judgment are continually called into action.

In (5), *the record-making work*, the language faculties play a leading part, in selecting and forming the terms of the judgment or decree, and the permanent portions of the record on which it is based.

It appears, then, that the faculties of judgment and the linguistic faculties are pre-eminent in the work of the lawyer, and should be developed by special education. What study will best train his faculties of judgment and of language? I believe that, next after a thorough training in the use of the mother-tongue, the study of the classics will best accomplish this result.

In the presence of a company of teachers it is not necessary to dwell upon the details by which this is demonstrated.

In translating a long sentence from Greek or Latin, the student has to do with, say, 100 words. Each of the fifty more important of these words has from five to fifteen meanings in English. The student must measure, weigh, compare, contrast, and balance these different meanings to insure that he has found (1) the real meaning of the original; (2) the best English equivalent for it; (3) the best English expression of it. He will find that the connectives, particles, and seemingly less important words are themselves *signs* by which he will be guided to the proper interpretation of the more important words, and aided in the selection of English equivalents. Like the discards in whist, these smaller members become most important indications of the interpretation of those to come. He will find that several of the words are in forms common to several distinct cases, as datives and ablatives, or to several different forms of thought as, for example, the several different uses of the subjunctive; and finally that the whole sentence may be treated as belonging to one or another of several different rhetorical forms. And he must measure and weigh and compare and contrast and balance at each stage of his work, to be sure that he is going right, and selecting the correct case and form.

Oh, what trials to the quick and accurate mathematical boy, who can compare algebraic squares mentally, and solve equations by inspection; to the observing scientific boy, who can classify the game birds of his locality at a glance! Here he must do something more. He must exercise his judgment. And that undeveloped faculty awakens and grows by exercise, and gradually acquires something of readiness and skill like unto the boy's skill with equations and game birds.

And the classics are the means of this acquisition.

This discussion is not intended to prescribe for the exceptional genius, for the Abraham Lincoln or John G. Johnson, who will rise with any education, or with no education, or with self-education. And the question is not whether the youth who hopes to be a lawyer shall be educated, nor whether he shall be educated in the law, but *what studies he shall pursue before taking up the law*. Comparing the classics with (a) mathematics, (b) the modern languages, (c) the natural sciences, (d) the applied sciences, (e) historical studies, (f) philosophical studies. I hold that the study of the classics yields superior training in the faculties of judgment and of language, and that these are what he most needs.

We could easily take up the comparison of the classical studies with those in each of the other groups of studies above noted, and find that, while each of the other groups has some point of excellence in which it surpasses all others, yet in the discipline of the faculties which *measure*, and *weigh* and *compare*, and *contrast* and *balance* the different elements, and *exercise selection* and make decision among them, the study of the classics surpasses them all.

(a) In mathematics, broadly speaking, each problem admits of but one answer, obtained in one way. The faculties of precise definition and accurate operation and statement are greatly disciplined, but the faculties of judgment, less so.

(b) In the modern languages (1) there is a royal road to each one of them, viz., taking a vacation in its mother-land; and (2) the modern forms of speech are corrupted in use and aided

by object-lessons to such an extent as distinctly to lessen their value as discipline for the judgment.

(c, d) The natural and applied sciences pre-eminently discipline the powers of observation.

(e, f) The historical and philosophical studies (after their initial stages, as *information studies*) are *higher forms of cultivation of the judgment*. They need a preliminary training of the judgment to build on, just as do the study and practice of the law. If we consider the training of the linguistic and dialectic faculties, we shall find that (after a thorough training in the use of the mother-tongue) the classics come first and the philosophical studies next. The lawyer then should study the classics and the philosophical studies.

It should be realized that the chief business of the lawyer has become that of business *adviser*; that the writing and interpreting of contracts, charters, ordinances, statutes, wills, by-laws, and business regulations, and advising with reference thereto, constitute his chief occupation. In all this he is constantly required to distinguish closely between the thought and the words in which the thought is expressed. Merely to illustrate, in these instruments such forms of thought as express alternative future possibilities are in constant use. In the discussion of adverse interests and claims the "supposition contrary to fact" is continually involved. Other things being equal, the mind trained by the rules and exceptions of classic syntax and their noble examples in classic literature has a familiarity with the *forms of thought*, as distinguished from the *words* in which they are expressed, which nowhere else, as I believe, can be acquired so well.

The objection that the classics are uninteresting, hard, and dry, is put forth by the boy himself. And from every point of view we give this objection too much importance. But to the active practicing lawyer I beg to say that this is an important element in their value.

A lawyer must needs study uninteresting old statutes, dry and ancient blue books, stupid, antiquated ordinances, early black-letter precedents, to find out what the law is and what his client's

rights are. Unless he can study alertly, patiently, and discriminatingly all these uninteresting, hard, and dry sources of the law and bases of rights, he will never reach the higher walk of his profession. Many men have natural aptitude for this. Many men have such superior ambition and industry that they will learn how to do this work when the necessity for it overtakes them. Of them we do not speak. But for the average youth who aims to become a lawyer there is great need that he be given special *training in the interpretation of documents* which are uninteresting, hard, and dry. He will have no end of it to do in his profession. He should conquer this preliminary difficulty before he enters upon his work. And while hard work for hard work's sake is a solecism, hard work *in something worth while*, for the strength and skill to be gained thereby, is the essence of all disciplinary education. And this applies to the study of the classics by the would-be lawyer.

I have said nothing of the fact that there are thousands of legal terms adopted bodily from the Latin; that the terminology of the law is largely a Latin terminology; that our law itself is built upon the Roman law as a foundation, to a degree that only our best lawyers realize; that most of the legal conceptions which are daily employed in the profession are largely Roman in their origin; that the full-blown judicial statements with which the early common law abounds were many of them taken almost bodily from the Roman law; that, in the language of Sir MATTHEW HALE, "a man could never well understand law as a science without first resorting to the Roman law for information;" and he lamented that it was so little studied in England (1 Kent, 546).

In all this the person who appreciates the value of the scientific treatment of law will find powerful additional arguments for the study of the classics. The Latin of the *Institutes* is mainly post-classical in the technical sense, but may be treated as classical for present purposes. I have often regretted that the colleges in their offerings of Latin do not more often include the *Institutes* of Gaius and Justinian, which would familiarize

the student, not only with classical forms of thought and expression, but with legal conceptions also.

We know, of course, that the slang of the street, the jargon of the market-place, and the vogue of the moment pervade the current use of English. This is true of every other language in current use. We know again that among the thousand books put forth each year, but one or two survive and are worth our study. And we are oft-times perplexed to select those two, and avoid loss of time and effort upon the unworthy. But among the classics the winnowing hand of time has made the selection for us. The slang, the jargon, and the vogue have passed. The clamorous utterances of the ephemeral and the unworthy have perished. The fittest, however, survive.

One accent of the Holy Ghost  
The heedless world hath never lost.

And these are our classics; these the testings and selections which the ages have pronounced worthy. It is the absorption of these, the mastery of their spirit, and the equipment that they yield, which give to the educated lawyer his special strength; which give the educated man in every field his sense of kinship with the great minds of all ages; which store his mind with the resources of the world; which give the spirit of light and leading which he needs.

The man who knows his classics goes through the work of life saying:

I have heard the lofty paeans  
Of the masters of the shell,  
Who have heard the starry music,  
And recount its numbers well;  
Olympian bards who sung  
Divine ideas below,  
Which always find us young  
And always keep us so.

And he has within him the sense of largeness and of power that gives him in some degree, however small, a fellowship with the greatest and the noblest—with

Caesar's hand, and Plato's brain,  
The Lord Christ's heart, and Shakespeare's strain.

II. THE STUDY OF GREEK AND LATIN AS A PREPARATION FOR  
THE STUDY OF LAW

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LYNDEN EVANS  
Of the Chicago Bar

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If one were to select a single word to express the aims and ambitions of the present day in substantially every field of human effort, that word would be "efficiency." The *result* is everywhere the principal thing sought after, and, with regret it must be said, the method of reaching the result is considered with more or less indifference. This applies even to the training of lawyers. There is a widespread indifference upon the subject, in general, as well as a tendency away from the study of the classics as a preliminary professional training.

That the study of Latin and Greek has tradition on its side is no longer an effective argument. We should, therefore, abandon that argument, and we may abandon it without regret; for in the first place, it is a waste of time to advance an argument which we know will not be considered by the jury to which we are addressing it—such procedure only wearies the hearers; and, in the second place, there is a change in the conditions surrounding the practice of the law which calls for a restatement of what is necessary in preparatory courses, and if we found our arguments upon present needs, we shall get a hearing before those whom we desire to reach.

The changes in conditions now demand greater breadth of view in members of the bar, and the reason is not far to seek. From the days of Magna Charta to our Civil War the legal profession furnished the leaders, and was the most important factor in the development of political liberty. Its writs of habeas corpus and trial by jury have been among the means of developing individual freedom and a true democracy. So long as the pressing questions were those relating to the basic rights of men, the lawyer necessarily, in the practice of his profession, was compelled to consider the rights of all members of society, and in a measure to keep in consideration the status of all citizens or subjects; and this naturally developed a breadth of

view. But all these great and important questions have been substantially settled. No longer do the virtues of the writ of habeas corpus and the right of trial by jury serve as the grandiloquent perorations of Fourth of July speeches. Our questions today are what Mr. Lecky would call "money disputes," and these have a narrowing tendency. While the lawyer of today has to know the wider and more complicated business relations that now exist, and know them better than the lawyer of half a century ago, the relations are financial, absolutely; human interests and the development of society are less and less necessary subjects of inquiry in the actual practice of our profession, and we must therefore meet the narrowing tendency by a broader training in order to produce the best result. Mere breadth of view in itself will be ineffective unless it is accompanied by the power of generalization, for laws themselves are but generalizations legitimately drawn from concrete conditions. Let us, therefore, taking no account, for the moment, of the development of the mind in accuracy of detail, pass to the more important subject, to that breadth of view which enables the individual to generalize correctly, and hence to be able to apply those generalizations to specific facts submitted to him for his opinion. Let us meet the issue squarely, not by praising the value of Latin and Greek as a means of training, but by comparing it with modern languages, mathematics, and the natural sciences.

I. (a) The modern languages are in their nature changing, and current language is full of colloquial, if not slang, phrases which are not accurate expressions of thought. In this respect the dead languages have the advantage. The student who studies the German of Goethe and Schiller will probably remember no more about those works twenty years after he has studied them than he would of Homer or Virgil; yet in neither case would it be reasonable to deny the disciplinary value of the study. But the main advantages of dead languages over modern languages is that the subject-matter of the literature of modern languages is our complex modern life, full of the emotions of pity and sympathy. The subject-matter of the literature of the dead languages is more remote from us; it stimulates thought rather

than emotion; the records of wars, the great jury speeches of Demosthenes and Cicero, the laws and political constitutions of the peoples of antiquity, when properly studied involve accurate expression and logical rather than sympathetic development. Nor are the poems of Homer or Virgil an exception; their appeal to us is not emotional in the modern sense; the subjects stressed in Greek and Latin literature are the conduct of life and the government of men and the lessons of history—the subject-matter of that literature itself educates a lawyer.

(b) Again, the advantage of Latin and Greek over any modern language grows out of the fact that our own tongue consists of these languages or their derivatives grafted upon an Anglo-Saxon stock. We cannot learn Latin and Greek without learning English better; and he who is a good Latin grammarian is a good English grammarian without further study. It was James Russell Lowell who said that he believed he had never made a mistake in the meaning of an English word until one day in a hurry he consulted an English dictionary instead of a Greek or Latin dictionary for the root meaning of the word sought. For the man who has studied Latin and Greek, the saving of time and labor that comes from knowing the meaning of an English word of classical origin met with for the first time is a large element in the economy of time; and in addition, because he knows the fundamental meaning of the word, he has an accuracy of definition that cannot be obtained from an English dictionary which gives all the various uses of a word without making prominent the root meaning in the foreign language.

(c) A third advantage arises from the fact that Latin law has been grafted upon Anglo-Saxon law. Our practice in chancery borrows from the civil law both its substantive enactments and in a large measure its practice, and all our probate or surrogate courts, by whatever name they are known in the various states, are simply inheritors of the ecclesiastical law of England so far as applicable to American conditions. The civil law, and not the common law, controls descent and heirship in almost all states throughout the Union and in England. It would seem a waste of time to attempt to elaborate the importance, for the

lawyer, of a knowledge of the language in which is written so large a part of the law which is in full force and effect today throughout this Union.

(d) It might be claimed that the last argument was merely academic, were it not for the fact that from the ingrafting of Latin upon our Saxon stock of law have come also Latin expressions of commonest use. Our writs are Latin words. Many of our forms of pleading and all the great principles of jurisprudence have been summarized in brief Latin statements which we call maxims; in an age when "brevity" is the second word to "efficiency," the practical value of this cannot be underestimated. To the legal mind the fact that any argument made comes legitimately and rationally within the scope of one of those great maxims which have guided our courts for centuries gives it weight and invites consideration, because it shows that the argument depends upon no novel or fictitious basis, but is in agreement with the experience of our race in the administration of justice.

II. The comparison between the classics and mathematics in point of training is nowadays less insisted upon; nor do lawyers, as a rule, feel that any great question can be raised here, for the importance of mathematics is unquestioned. But should the question arise whether, after the elementary principles of mathematics and the elements of the Latin or Greek languages have been mastered, to which additional time should be given, we must say that, since mathematics deals only with the relations of numbers, while language and literature deal with the expression of the relations, not only of numbers, but also of life and its rules of conduct, the study of the languages must give the wider vision of the two.

III. But the real conflict in the feeling of today is in regard to the supposed advantages of the study of the natural sciences over that of the ancient classics. Even if it be generally agreed that the study of mathematics, despite its greater finality of **conclusion and exactness of process**, is, from the point of view of this discussion, inferior to the study of ancient languages because its subject-matter is so unlike human conduct—the rules of mathe-

matics having no analogy to the rules of human life—it is claimed that the study of the natural sciences will give an equal, if not superior, training in accuracy through exact observation of the processes of nature, and that the knowledge thereby gained is more fruitful than that acquired from the study of the Latin and Greek languages. The question involved is not as to what knowledge itself is the more useful or the more easily remembered, but which is the better discipline for the mind in preparation for the study and practice of the profession. In the study of the natural world, teachers are often misled by the fact that their pupils show a greater interest in such subjects than in the comparatively abstract study of language, the cause of this interest being largely the pleasure of sense-perception. The eye and the ear easily acquire what the reasoning mind must with difficulty assimilate. But this very fact makes it reasonable to suppose that training in the sciences will not give the power to deduce abstract rules of conduct because the sense-interest dominates the thought-interest. The subject-matter of the physical sciences, furthermore, brings the student ever back to the immutable laws of nature, and so, like mathematics, it fails to aid him directly in studying the mutable conditions of human conduct. The interests involved are not human, the operation of natural laws is too unlike the collective effect of individual free will. The very statement of this fact ought to satisfy the reason upon this point and make applicable the legal maxim, *res ipsa loquitur*.

IV. Another important desideratum in the training of a lawyer is accuracy of interpretation. While one is studying Latin and Greek he is being trained in a method very like that which he must pursue in construing a law. Pick up a statute just enacted, and begin to study it carefully to find out what its full meaning and effect is, and you are doing precisely the same thing as when you take a passage of Livy or Tacitus and endeavor to find its exact meaning. Every word must be weighed, and the point of its position in the sentence determined. The effect of former laws in a case is like the effect of the preceding sentences or the context; and the meaning of that sentence as related to the following sentences, as to whether it

makes a complete story, is like the consideration of full meaning of the statute itself in connection with the rest of the substantive law on the question involved. This determination of the meaning of statutes is one of the most practical duties of a lawyer. It will hardly be maintained by anyone that, as a preparation for this sort of work, the natural sciences or mathematics will have a practical value in training equal to that of Greek and Latin.

I have not attempted to discuss those very important, but apparently less practical, sides of the question which are most often dwelt on at length—such as the development of the taste, the acquiring of elegance of expression, and the distinction of learning—which are so often urged in favor of the study of the classics, because, as a rule in the discussion of this subject, the force of such considerations is admitted by those who differ from us. I have felt the need of presenting this question in a practical and concrete way, because my experience in lecturing to law students has led me to believe that this is the line of argument most apt to be effective at the present day, or at least while the fever of hurry is still a distinguishing characteristic of the age.

Furthermore, that the argument in favor of classical study may be effective, it must be of a kind which will ordinarily be appreciated by young men about to begin the last stages of study before actually engaging in their work in life, and not of the kind which will appeal only to older men whose successes and failures have taught them to view these questions with a greater regard for the value of professional training as it fits in and becomes part of the experience of life than as a means of immediate financial return. Whichever class of argument may be the more effective, we shall all agree that the day has gone which could prompt the couplet of Edmund Waller:

Poets who would marble seek,  
Must come in Latin or in Greek.

Nevertheless, we cannot forget that, with very few exceptions, lawyers who have come to distinguish themselves in their profession and to be of use to the world have come *through* Latin or *through* Greek.

III. HUMANISTIC, AND PARTICULARLY CLASSICAL, STUDIES  
AS A PREPARATION FOR THE LAW

DEAN H. B. HUTCHINS

Department of Law, University of Michigan

Aside from the elementary branches, no particular subject is absolutely essential as a basis for the study and practice of the law. In this respect the law occupies a place somewhat different from that of the other learned professions. The student and practitioner of medicine must of necessity get a substantial *scientific foundation* for his professional work. This for him is an absolutely essential prerequisite. For the professional courses in engineering a special and definite *scientific* preparation must be made; without it nothing but the most ordinary work in engineering can be accomplished. And it is probable that for theology, work along certain well-defined lines is desirable, if not essential. But it by no means follows that, because success in the study of the law or in the practice of it does not depend upon the mastery of particular subjects, a thorough preparation therefor is not necessary. The contrary is most emphatically true, particularly at the present time. The law is a practical subject, most intimately connected with the private interests of the citizen, and with questions affecting his public rights and obligations; but it is at the same time a science, the mastery of which requires a mental equipment above the ordinary. No one can hope for much success as a student of it without adequate preliminary training, or in its application as an art, without being prepared for the keenest kind of intellectual competition.

Upon the very threshold of his work the law student discovers that his success is to depend very largely upon his equipment—not upon his having mastered any particular subject, but upon his having made himself master of his own mental processes to such an extent that he can do independent and original thinking. The fundamental principles of the different departments of the law must be mastered, and that their full significance may be appreciated, their historical development through the successive decisions of the courts, must be traced. But he

soon discovers that his task embraces more than the memorizing of principles, and the study of their origin and growth. His eyes are soon opened to the fact that the serious business of the law student consists in the application of general principles to the solution of problems involving new conditions and varying statements of fact. And then, too, he discovers directly that, although the body of the settled law is large, there are continually arising questions upon which the law is unsettled, and whose solution requires the harmonizing, if possible, of conflicting decisions, or, where this is not possible, the determination as to the weight of reason and authority. He soon discovers that for every step taken and for every conclusion reached a logical and forceful reason must be assigned. It is needless for me to suggest that work of this nature, if successfully accomplished, calls for analytical power and constructive ability; it demands the informed and trained judgment of an educated man. While occasionally one having a natural aptitude for the law may be able, even with limited preparation, to master its principles and the art of its application, and to push to the front with apparent ease, the fact remains that, as a rule, the appreciative and successful study of jurisprudence demands preliminary training of a high order and of the thorough and rigorous kind.

And if such training is necessary for the student, it is certainly doubly so for the practitioner. He must be master, not only of legal principles, but also of the art of applying them to the actual affairs of life. The successful lawyer must not only have in mind and ready for immediate use the essential and fundamental doctrines of the law, but he must have his faculties so disciplined and under control that he is always prepared for emergencies. Men with ordinary equipment can do only ordinary things and fill the ordinary places, but the men who through ability and training are equal to the unexpected are bound to go to the front. More perhaps than the man in any other profession does the lawyer need a large range of general information. His work is so varied, and touches life at so many different points and frequently in so unexpected a way, that he will constantly find himself embarrassed and handicapped without the intel-

lectual masterfulness that comes from thorough and vigorous preliminary study. Unless his attention is especially challenged to the fact, the layman rarely appreciates the extent and variety of learning, aside from the strictly professional, that the lawyer must from time to time summon to his aid in the course of a varied career at the bar. If he has been liberally and thoroughly trained, the knowledge necessary for the emergency may be his; but if it is not his, he has what is quite as useful—the ability to acquire at short notice and under pressure the necessary special information.

The notion that I seek to impress, that large success at the bar demands great versatility and thorough general training, may perhaps be made more apparent by illustration. The litigation in hand may require the examination, by the lawyer in charge, of learned experts in some particular field of science—in electricity for example. In order to develop his case through the examination of his own experts, and to detect error and expose fallacies in the testimony of the experts of his adversary, it is absolutely essential that he have a working knowledge of the specialty. Moreover, in the argument of the case he must become in a sense the instructor of the court and of the jury, if there be one; for he must make plain to them the full significance of the scientific testimony adduced and its bearing upon the controversy that they are to decide. The full extent of the task will be appreciated when it is remembered that in many such cases, perhaps in most of them, both court and jury are ignorant of the ordinary and fundamental principles of the science involved, and must depend for their enlightenment entirely upon the skill of the attorneys in the development of the case through the testimony and its presentation in the argument. The case may be one involving the question of mental capacity, either to do a particular act, or to appreciate the moral and legal consequences of a particular act. A controversy of this kind plunges the lawyer at once into the uncertain domain of the alienist, and, in order that he may do his full duty to his client or the public, a working knowledge of the various forms of insanity is an absolute necessity. The extent to which a preparation in this regard

at times becomes necessary, and the uses to which such preparation may be put, are well illustrated in the trial in New York that is just now attracting so much public attention. Another striking illustration of the uses to which knowledge that apparently has little or no bearing upon the practice of the law may be put in a legal proceeding, is to be found in the recent insurance investigation by the Armstrong Committee in the city of New York. The remarkably brilliant work of Mr. Hughes in connection with that investigation has placed him in the front rank of American lawyers. His attitude upon public questions, and the belief of the people that he has the strength and the courage to accomplish the reforms that he advocates, together with his reputation as an honest and brilliant lawyer, have opened up for him a career outside of his profession; but it is simply to his work as a lawyer before the Armstrong Committee that I would direct attention. The secret of his achievement there was his preparedness, and the secret of his preparedness lay in the fact that, while securing a thorough preliminary training, he became a profound mathematician. The mathematics of insurance and the intricacies of insurance methods were to him an open book. His investigations, therefore, were thoroughly and rapidly made, and his conclusions fortified by a knowledge of details that to the uninitiated was simply marvelous. He was able to meet the insurance expert upon his own ground and to confound him by practical demonstrations of his wrong-doing.

But further illustration is probably unnecessary. It must be apparent, I think, that the lawyer, if he is to win a place in the profession, must be able to summon to his aid such special knowledge as may be necessary to meet the exigencies of his practice as they may arise. It cannot be expected, of course, that any considerable part of this will be secured through preliminary study. Occasionally such study may furnish it. But preparatory training, if of the proper sort, will furnish what, in a large way, is vastly more important than special knowledge, namely, the ability to assimilate and put to practical use, as the occasion demands, the results of the work of other men.

The foregoing, by way of introduction, leads naturally, I

think, to the suggestion that I desire to emphasize, namely, that preparation for the law should be made by the study of such subjects as will train a man *to acquire easily and rapidly, and to think logically and independently*. And, in my judgment, the subjects the study of which tends to the development of these qualities are those which require of the student strenuous, painstaking, and persistent effort for their mastery. If I could regulate the preparation of law students, I would eliminate from the course all predigested and specially prepared foods, and I would give the young man something that would demand earnest effort on his part to assimilate. While I believe in and advocate a thorough college course as a preparation for the study of law, and while I hope that the time is not far distant when such a course, or its equivalent, may be made a prerequisite for legal study, I am frank to say that the young man who has a thorough, old-fashioned classical and mathematical preparation for college is, in my judgment, much better fitted for the study of law than is the man who during four years in college has dissipated his energy and weakened his power to think clearly and logically by desultory and pointless work in "snap" courses that require little or no effort on his part. But I wish it understood that in making this statement, I do not intend a criticism of the elective system as such, for I believe in it, but I believe also that it should always be so supervised and regulated that disciplinary subjects predominate during at least the first half of the course. Under such a plan the student comes to the specialized work of the last two years with a quickened and strengthened mind and an informed judgment.

And it is because the preparatory study of the law student should be of the strenuous kind that the ancient classics may well take a prominent place in the preliminary course. There can be no question, I think, as to their disciplinary value. It is quite impossible for one to master the elements of Latin or Greek, and to attain a reading familiarity with either of those languages, without a painstaking and continuous mental effort. There must be a persistent training of the memory and a constant exercise of the judgment. For the prospective lawyer there can be no

better discipline than that which comes from the discriminating effort involved in careful translation. The lawyer's professional life must be largely devoted to the interpretation of the law, and to the preparation and interpretation of legal instruments; and the greater his skill in the use of language and in discovering shades of meaning, the greater his effectiveness. But, putting all this aside and conceding, for the moment, that the study of the ancient classics is without practical value, and that whatever we learn of them is soon forgotten, we still cannot escape the fact that the mental power and effectiveness that are the results of that study remain with the man and become a part, and a very large part, of his equipment for the activities of life.

But while I would urge the study of the classics as a part of the preparatory law course largely for their disciplinary value, I would also urge that study on account of the facility that it tends to give in the use of English. As to this there can be no question. There is in regard to this practically no difference of opinion among educators. The study of English can best be made through the Latin language. And that the lawyer needs to know English goes without saying. The most effective men at the bar are those who, with good legal attainments, are able to write and speak simple, clear, concise, and forceful English. I do not mean by this that success at the bar at the present time depends upon oratory, as popularly understood, or upon the arts of the orator, for this is not the fact, but it does depend very largely upon the ability of the practitioner to clothe his ideas in a few words so arranged as to challenge at once the attention. A distinguished English judge has said that a case clearly stated is half won, and there is certainly truth in the suggestion. One of the difficult tasks of the law teacher is to get from the student a clear, concise, and definite statement of the facts of the case that is to form the basis of discussion, and in this part of the work the noticeable superiority of the classically trained student is apparent.

It must be conceded, of course, that the study of Latin is of practical value to the law student by reason of the fact that Latin terms are very generally used in the law. This, however, I

regard as a matter of minor importance, for through the aid of the dictionary the meaning of such terms is easily ascertained. However, a student who has a reading knowledge of the language is able to appreciate the terms at once and without the necessity of special study.

It is hardly necessary to suggest that, if one is to devote himself to the scholarly side of the law, he should be classically trained, and that his knowledge of Latin and Greek should be supplemented by at least a reading knowledge of French and German. The field of the jurist is a broad one, and the ease and thoroughness of his investigations depend very largely upon his ability to reach and master the sources of information through the texts of the originals.

The case that we seek to establish would not be complete without the suggestion that the *culture* value of humanistic study should not be overlooked in the consideration of what should be the training of the prospective lawyer. We are too apt to forget, in these intensely practical times, that the professional man should be first of all the well-educated gentleman. The lawyer should be more than a lawyer, the physician more than a physician, the engineer more than an engineer. Each should have an educational basis that fits him for something outside of, and beyond, his profession. I would not for a moment claim that a man cannot be well educated without a knowledge of the ancient classics, for such is not the fact, but that humanistic study stimulates the mind to seek what is best in literature and art, and furnishes a source of culture and entertainment that broadens the man, and enables him to have an appreciative sense of the value of things outside of the narrow limits of his specialty, cannot admit of doubt.

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#### IV. DISCUSSION OF THE FIRST THREE PAPERS

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HON. HARLOW P. DAVOCK  
Of the Detroit Bar

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Justinian has well said that the whole doctrine of the law may be reduced to three general principles: To live honestly, to hurt nobody, and to render to everyone his just due. It becomes, then, the duty of the lawyer either, as

an advocate, to endeavor to persuade those who administer the law to have those things done which should be done, or, as a judge, or acting in a judicial capacity, to compel the doing of the right. This in itself seems a very simple matter, and the ordinary layman can see no particular reason why a formula should not be made to fit every case, and justice measured out by the yard, according to the size of the garment desired. But, holding the view that "law is the perfection of reason, that it always intends to conform thereto, and that that which is not reason is not law," we see at once how necessary it is that one who enters upon the practice of law should have the most careful preparation for his work; his task requires the delicate application and careful use of the highest faculties with which mortal man has been endowed. Where and how can these faculties be best developed?

The time has gone by when the student chooses a classical course simply because its degree is supposed to be the earmark of a completed education. With the increased development in the sciences and the so-called practical studies, a greater breadth of opportunity for choice of studies is afforded to the student; and we come back to the fundamental query: What is an education? Whatever the process, we shall agree that the trained or educated man is he who has gained the power to concentrate his thoughts, to reason correctly, and impartially to diagnose situations as they present themselves.

Trite enough is the proverb that there is no royal road to learning; but it is not inappropriate to remember that the road without obstructions is not well adapted to develop the resourcefulness of the traveler. The very fact that Latin, Greek, algebra, and the calculus are hard studies is a weighty reason why they should be pursued. It is the severe studies which, by steady grinding, bring out from the rough stone the diamond. I have no more patience with the man who decries this work in ancient languages because it is not practical, than I have with the professor who stated to his class that mathematics were in his mind a mere chaos, a stream through which he had waded, and which was as unreal to him as the stream which disappears in a western desert.

There is undoubtedly a practical use of Latin for the lawyer, as there is a practical use of Greek for the doctor or clergyman; but above all else in importance is the peculiar quality of the training afforded by Latin and Greek, which develops the mind for the analysis of the intricate questions presented in the practice of the law. The modern law school has come to stay. It is becoming each year more thorough, and is recognized as indispensable to the proper preparation for practice at the bar; but equally important should be the educational foundation preparatory to matriculation therein.

I was impressed with the idea, advanced by one of the speakers a year ago, that Latin and Greek are almost always taught by trained teachers. The

German and French course, when properly presented, is most valuable, but the average of teaching in the modern languages is not so high as in the ancient, and the spoken language is much more easily acquired. The competent clerk or waiter in France and Germany, on account of his environment, must write or speak English; but this does not mean scholarship. You stand amazed at the fluency with which a young miss with an English accent explains to you the Palais de Justice at Brussels, and find that she learned our language by visiting a sister in London for two or three months. The man who succeeds in life is he who has gained the command of his own mental processes through close, hard work, such as is inseparable from the study of Latin, Greek, and mathematics.

The question when and how far Latin and Greek should be studied may be left for determination to the educational expert, but I wish to enter my protest against the apparent ease with which other studies at the present time can be substituted. The substituting of superficial polish for deep culture—the substituting of a kind of Chautauqua or lyceum course of lectures for the rigid training of classics, mathematics, and philosophy—is to my mind the imminent peril which presents itself in the present type of college and university curriculum, and surely for no profession is sound and thorough preliminary study more needed than for the law.

Our courts require and demand a clear statement on the part of the counselors who appear before them. A certain rhetorical manner may influence a jury; but back of all is the law, and it is the law as recognized and applied by the keenest minds that must ultimately win. In these days of commercialism and Alladin-like fortunes, of trusts and combinations, let us not forget that it is upon those who prepare laws, who enact laws, who execute the law, who decide the law, that the weal or woe of the nation depends. Whatever makes the interpreters of law intellectually honest, whatever makes them true thinkers and close analysts, is not only for their betterment, but for the betterment of society as a whole. I believe that the humanistic studies will best help prepare the lawyer for his part in life, and I know no greater responsibility than that which rests upon the teachers in our intermediate schools—those who guide, direct, and control the mind of the student in its formative period, who should see to it that the studies of the young student are rightly chosen.

In conclusion, let me say this, that the successful lawyer is he who has not only the body, but the soul, of his profession; as he has been well and truly educated, so will he carefully, conscientiously, and faithfully guide those interests which are either put in his charge, or are presented to him for consideration. In legal training, therefore, let us hold fast to this rigid preliminary classical study; and the results, the greatest and best, will be shown in those who are not the evanescent leaders of the populace, but the true leaders of the people and the bar.

## V. DISCUSSION OF THE FIRST THREE PAPERS

HINTON E. SPALDING  
Of the Detroit Bar

Since the time of my own graduation from the university, it has been a matter of some solicitude with me that there has been, not only among the students, but also among the faculty, a turning-away from classical study, with an undue emphasis of other lines of university work. And it is because from my own experience, I believe in the value, the great value, of classical training as a preparation for the practice of the law, and because I deprecate the tendency to which I have alluded, that I came out here this afternoon to give such a reason as I might for the "faith that is in me."

It is hardly worth while to discuss further the proposition which is before us, because the argument lies in a narrow compass, and it has already been set forth fully and forcibly. However, as conviction generally depends more upon feeling and upon personal testimony than upon any logical process of argument, it may be worth while to say a word about my own experience as determining my point of view.

It is almost thirty years since Professor D'Ooge gave me my entrance examination in Latin and Greek. I liked classical study, and for that reason, and for no other, I have continued to read the classics ever since; without pursuing any systematic course, I have I think in every year since I left college, and in most of the months of every year, read more or less Greek and some Latin.

In this connection I wish to record a doubt as to the advisability of casting aside classical studies at so early a stage in the college course as seemed to be suggested by Dean Hutchins. You can get the discipline by the end of the freshman year; but unless you have much better preparation in Latin and Greek than it was my lot to have, no man who has finished his freshman year has gotten or is able to get the cream of what is to be had from the study of these languages. You must be able to read at sight—you must be independent of Liddell and Scott; and such a command, of Greek at least, cannot be acquired without a longer preparation. The ability to read Greek and Latin at sight has, in my estimation, a value aside from the disciplinary for professional purposes; in that way, and in that way only, can one get the close and intimate knowledge of literature, which after all is most essential. I dismiss consideration of the disciplinary effect for that is common to all studies involving hard intellectual labor.

Fundamental in the work of the lawyer is the investigation of truth. This investigation he carries on under great disadvantages, because his material is the infinite multitude of facts of human life continually shifting and varying, imperfectly understood at the best, and subject to continual modifications. He can carry on no exact experimentation in his work, and his instru-

ment in his investigation is language considered as a vehicle for the exact expression of thought. I know that it is commonly thought that the lawyer is not primarily concerned with the investigation of truth, but rather with the success of a particular cause of interest; I had that opinion myself when I began practicing, but any professional man who is worth his salt, if he ever held that opinion, changes it before he achieves substantial success. Primarily the interest of the lawyer is the interest of his client, but every lawyer who attains any great measure of success comes to realize that he best fulfils his professional duty who serves his client with full recognition of his higher allegiance to the truth.

For the purposes of this investigation he must learn to pick out from the mass of circumstances, relevant and irrelevant, essential and unessential, the controlling facts. He must learn to see them clearly, and to perceive them in all their relations and bearings uninfluenced by imagination or by sympathy, but making due allowance for the effect of imagination and sympathy upon others. A prime characteristic of the classical literature, and particularly the Greek, is an ever-present sense of measure and proportion, clear perception of the idea in mind and adequate expression of it, a perfect command of all the resources of expression and of all the powers of the mind, so that no one either dominates or is dominated by another. The study of such literature to the point which I have suggested, when you can really sense it without looking through the pages of the dictionary, will give, as I think, better than anything else can give, the ability essential for professional success. In this connection it has been suggested that Latin is of more importance than Greek. With that point of view I cannot agree; for the purposes I have indicated, Greek seems to me to be more important than Latin.

As social relations become more complex and the huge accumulation of material resources and of the apparatus of material civilization grows ever greater—so grows the difficulty of attaining real knowledge and mastery, and so grows the need of it. And so also, the importance of the profession of the law increases as an interpreting and co-ordinating power. And so too grows the necessity of a sound method of classical training for those who would discharge the full measure of service that the profession owes to society.

## VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

THE CHAIRMAN, HON. LEVI I. BARBOUR

Of the Detroit Bar, Regent of the University of Michigan

Aside from the point of view of the professions, the value of the humanistic studies as making life worth living ought to be emphasized. These studies are of more value than any others for the character which they give to life.

In this country we have made a very grave mistake in reducing the requirements for the bachelor of arts degree so that almost any study, or a half-dozen miscellaneous studies pursued as the student may desire, will entitle him to this degree: that is, to a reputation for knowing something which he does not know, and of having earned something that he has not earned. I should like to go back to the old condition of things, when the degree of bachelor of arts meant classical education.

#### VII. APPENDIX TO THE PAPER OF MR. MERRITT STARR

An important contribution to the literature of the subject is the address of Dean Henry Wade Rogers, formerly of the University of Michigan, on the requirements for admission to the different law schools and for the different legal degrees, from which I am permitted to make the following extracts.<sup>1</sup>

In England, Oxford University does not confer the law degree upon one who is not a graduate in arts, either of Oxford University or of some university which Oxford is willing to recognize.

In Scotland, no university can confer the degree of LL.B. on anyone who has not already obtained an arts degree.

In Ireland, the LL.B. degree is granted after two years of law study to those who hold an A.B. degree.

In France, to be entered at the *École de droit*, the student is required to produce, *inter alia*, the diploma of *bachelier de lettres* or, if he has not studied in France, an equivalent qualification.

No American law school has as yet conditioned its law degree absolutely in the attainment of an academic degree. Harvard in 1896-97 made the possession of such a degree necessary for matriculation as a regular student. But persons without such a degree can still be admitted at Harvard as special students, and can obtain the law degree if they attain a sufficiently high standing on the examinations. And the same rule practically exists at Columbia.

Yale University recently announced that, beginning with the academic year 1909, it will require students to have had the equivalent of at least two full years of work of collegiate grade.

Two years of college work is also to be required, or is already required, by the law schools connected with the state universities of North Carolina, Ohio, West Virginia, and Wisconsin, and by that of Trinity College at Durham, North Carolina. Within the immediate future other schools will, no doubt, take similar action. With foreign universities insisting on the degree requirements, American universities cannot long remain content with a diploma from a high school as the admission requirement of their professional schools.

A discussion in the Bar Association of Texas, in 1900, sheds considerable

<sup>1</sup> The President's Address at the meeting of the Association of American Law Schools at St. Paul, August 30, 1906.

light on conditions in that state. One of the professors of the law school of the state university declared that persons were being constantly admitted to the bar of Texas who were without qualifications. "Many of these young men," he said, "secured license by knowing what questions would be asked, and through the kindness of some friend on the board of examiners who would say: 'Oh, he is a common-sense fellow; he will make a lawyer some day.'" And the president of the association, in 1894, in his address declared that in his experience of nineteen years he could call to mind only one applicant who had been rejected. In 1903 the Committee on Legal Education reported in favor of requiring all applicants to be examined on literary subjects, but the association, after a lengthy discussion, rejected the recommendation. One member, who could not conceal his contempt for the suggestion that applicants should pass an examination in elementary Latin, announced that the dead languages were dead and had been dead for a long time; that he had never derived any benefit from them, and that he would not know them if he met them in the street. All of which may have been true, without impairing the wisdom and value of the committee's recommendation. But in his mind it settled the matter conclusively and at once against the report. Another participant in the discussion was one who could see no reason for expecting a lawyer to know anything about history, as he himself was unable to tell, as he said, "without severe deliberation," whether James I followed Charles I or Charles II. He frankly confessed that he did not believe it made an iota of difference whether James died before Charles was born or was born after Charles died. Still another, again recurring to the Latin recommendation, effectually disposed of it by saying: Judge Bleckley, of the Supreme Court of Georgia, "don't know any more about Latin than a pig, and yet he is acknowledged to be, perhaps, the greatest living judge in the South today." Having disposed of the Latin recommendation in the manner indicated, he next gave attention to the recommendation as to mathematics. Declaring his conviction that a knowledge of mathematics had no bearing whatever on one's qualifications to practice law, he demonstrated the truth of his assertion by saying: "I bet there are not two lawyers present who can define that word 'quadratics.' I know I can't. Talk about requiring that examination, I bet there are not five lawyers present who can define what it means, or care what it means."

It is impossible longer to view with complacency the conferring of the LL.B. degree for one year, or even two years, of law study. Now that there are sixty-four law schools in this country which grant it only to those who have studied for three years, it is not less disturbing to find schools conferring the master's degree in law at the end of a second or third year.

## LIBERATING THE LOWER EDUCATION

CHARLES S. HARTWELL

Boys' High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Chairman Committee on School Problems,  
Brooklyn Teachers' Association

Economy in education is a reasonable demand. American universities object to the reputation of harboring many extravagant youth, and the most aristocratic institutions like to have it known that students not only can but do work their way through college. Some are waking up to see that economy in time is economy in money, and that four is not a sacred number of years. Work done, and not time spent, is more and more the unit of measurement. Since President William DeWitt Hyde wrote his famous article in the *Outlook* of August 2, 1902, from North Dakota University to Harvard experiments have been tried along the line of recognizing quality as well as quantity in working for a degree, and Columbia has set an example in flexibility for other universities to rival.

Secondary education is affected by whatever starts in the colleges. This is true of small places as well as large. Not only has Asbury Park, N. J., for instance, introduced recognition of quality as a principle of promotion, but on March 27, 1907, the Board of Education of the City of New York, in establishing the point system of promotion for twenty-five thousand high-school pupils, adopted an additional regulation for the stimulation of scholarship which deserves to be applied in other large cities as well. Hereafter, "for every ten points obtained with 80 per cent. or over the student will be entitled to one additional point." Thus 137 periods of high-class work for a half-year may count for 150 points, the number required for high-school graduation in New York City.

Promotion by points carries with it, of course, promotion by subject—a measure for economizing the time and the energy of both pupils and teachers, and the money of taxpayers, the importance of which can scarcely be overestimated.

In *A Broader Elementary Education* J. P. Gordy discusses,

at Chapter xx, "The Most Important Problem of Public School Administration." At page 225 he says:

I believe that President Eliot uttered a profound truth when he remarked that "to discriminate between pupils of different capacity, to select the competent for suitable instruction, and to advance each pupil with appropriate rapidity, will ultimately become the most important functions of the public-school administrator—those functions in which he or she will be most serviceable to families and to the state."

In commenting on this statement, Dr. Gordy says on the same page:

The integrity of the American college is very seriously threatened because our school superintendents have not yet generally recognized their obligation to promote bright pupils to a higher grade as soon as these are capable of doing the work of that grade.

Great city high schools have been woefully delinquent in recognizing the right of the individual pupil to progress according to ability, irrespective of the rate at which other pupils may advance. Promotion by general average or promotion on a minimum of periods of unsuccessful work are the two methods, in general use in large cities, which have driven thousands out of school and unnecessarily impeded the advance of thousands more who have remained. To allow a pupil to advance in a subject beyond his powers, simply because he has done well in other subjects, is nearly as unpedagogical as to oblige him to repeat subjects in which he is proficient because he has failed in others. These have been common practices in New York, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, and other great cities. The time has come when such practices should cease. The Board of Superintendents in the City of New York has been sustained in its determination in this matter by the Board of Education. What progress is being made in other cities in removing the evils involved in the neglecting and repeating systems of promotion to which reference has been made?

At page 189 of the *School Review* for March, 1907, is given an instance of the evil results of the previous method of promotion in New York City. To illustrate still further: About a year ago the writer examined the work of 163 boys in the middle of the high-school course, and found that 55 of them had

been "left back" seventy-one terms of work. In few of these cases had the deficiency been in more than half the subjects. The needless repetition amounted to fully thirty terms' work, or fifteen years.

The Committee on School Problems of the Brooklyn Teachers' Association, an organization of more than 4,500 teachers, has been carrying on a careful investigation of this subject. In October, 1906, the writer sent two questionnaires to prominent educators throughout the country. Five editions have since gone forth, and the questionnaires with forty-three interrogatories were reprinted in full in the *School Review* for April, 1907. The detailed results of about six hundred answers will be sent in due course to those who have contributed their experience and opinions in this symposium. A subcommittee of nine principals, heads of department, and teachers have been long at the task of tabulating and formulating the consensus of opinions. In the limits of this article it is impossible to do more than to forecast a few of the conclusions, and to quote some characteristic and widely divergent opinions along these lines. Many suggestions among those received will appear in the official report to which the statements subjoined call attention.

The following quotations are taken at random from the mass of opinions received. They are not selected because of the eminence of their writers, or any judgment of their superiority or prominence in comparison with other opinions which have been received. They reflect in some degree the preponderance of conviction or of practice revealed in the number of "yes" or "no" answers to the two lists of questions, as recorded in the tables at the end of this article. The interested reader is able to make his own fruitful inductions from these carefully tabulated votes, and the writer makes no effort now to formulate for him the natural conclusions involved. He invites special attention to the results of I, 3, 7, 14, 15, 17, 20, 21, and II, 1, 5, and 6.

The percentage of the "yes" or the "no" answers in the tabulations to their sum will give to the reader the approximate average judgment of the country on the various questions in these inquiries.

Commissioner E. E. Brown, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.: "Flexible grading has been in operation for the past twelve or fifteen years at Cambridge, Mass. I have found the reports of that system very interesting indeed. The experiment of flexible promotions has been tried for the past two or three years in the schools of Oakland, Cal. In the Cass School at Detroit, Mich., there was for many years, and I suppose is yet, an ungraded room of a different sort from the ungraded class with which we are generally familiar. This room in the Cass School is intended for unusually bright pupils and serves to promote the rapid passage from grade to grade without loss of subject-matter. The whole subject is one of great interest, and every experiment such as that to which you call attention, looking to a better care of the needs of individuals, must command the serious attention of those who have to do with American education."

Principal F. R. Lane, Polytechnic Preparatory School of Brooklyn: "I am in thorough accord with you in the points you make. Here in the Polytechnic Preparatory School 'every pupil is promoted, advanced, and graduated according to proficiency in each of certain numbers of required and elective subjects.' No other theory is to be tolerated for an instant, if the good of the individual pupil is to be considered rather than the smooth running of the school machine."

"While I am in thorough sympathy with the doctrine of quality rather than quantity for graduation, I realize that schools of this type are hampered by the very definite exactions in quantity that are made by the engineering schools, colleges, and universities. For the boy in the secondary school who is being educated for business rather than prepared for admission to some institution, and for the college man, there is every argument in favor of the theory as expounded by you."

L. L. Hooper, headmaster of the Washington School, Washington, D. C.: "We have in the Washington School a complete elective system, there being absolutely no fixed course. A separate programme is made out for each boy. We have tried this plan for seven years, and we have found it exceedingly valuable."

Principal R. W. Strong, Ashland School, Denver, Colo.: "There is great liberty in my school, but no license I hope. There is great flexibility, and yet there is 'system;' but individuality is allowed considerable opportunity to develop, when the attribute is worthy and when a pupil is under a teacher who knows enough to direct intelligently."

Superintendent O. P. Bostwick, Clinton, Iowa: "In the graded schools of this city opportunity is offered to all pupils to move through the course as rapidly as the development of their intellectual powers will permit. Pupils who possess ability, energy, ambition, and good health are able to complete the course in less than the prescribed number of years, thus showing that the graded school is not necessarily a mechanical system. Of the 152 pupils

who graduated from the graded department in 1905, 6 completed the 9 grades in  $8\frac{1}{2}$  years; 9, in  $8\frac{3}{4}$  years; 17 went through in 8 years; 2, in  $7\frac{3}{4}$  years; and 4, in 7 years; making a total of 38 who completed the course of 9 grades in less than 9 years, being 25 per cent. of the total number; which proves that the bright pupil is recognized, and that ability and ambition will carry him through the course in less than the average time. On the other hand, there were 5 pupils who took 12 years to complete the course; 5 who took 11 years, and 34 who took 10 years; thus showing that the pupils who are irregular in their attendance, on account of sickness or for other reasons, and those who are not able to master their lessons easily, have ample opportunity to make their progress through the graded course in accordance with individual scholarship as shown at the successive stages of work."

Superintendent W. S. Siders, Pocatello, Idaho: "*Grouping study and recitation.*—Every half-yearly grade is divided into two groups, or classes, known as Division I and Division II. There is placed but one half-yearly grade to a room, so that the above is possible. Division I is the fast-working class, having a shorter time assignment for recitation and a longer time for class study. Division II is the slow-working class, having a longer time for class recitation, in order that they may work more with the teacher, and a shorter time for study, as you must see through necessity of arrangement. We experience no trouble from this source, however, as the pupils are not capable of so much effort unguided as the other group.

"Whenever a logical portion of a subject has been taught to a division, and the test upon the same shows that some are proficient and some are not, those that are proficient are excused from recitation, and the ones needing further instruction are called into recitation at the regular class time. Those not required to come to recitation are given supplementary work in the same subject or are given work in other subjects. When this segregated group is worked up to a proficient standard, the class is all called together again, and the work proceeds. There are no fixed groups; they differ in every subject taught, and are created as necessity arises. There is no appreciable loss of time to the bright student, because he pushes his investigations forward while the teacher is handling the others."

J. M. Green, principal of the New Jersey State Normal and Model Schools, Trenton, N. J.: "We promote by subject, and we promote a pupil in any one subject without regard to the others, unless it might be penmanship, or something in which he could improve as well in one grade as in another.

"When it appears to the teacher of a certain subject that a certain pupil is sufficiently in advance of his class or grade to go forward to the next grade, to keep him back seems to me to be an inexcusable injustice."

J. D. Story, Department of Public Instruction, Brisbane, Queensland: "Pupils are promoted from class to class upward through the school, trying

to keep the classes together as much as possible, but endeavoring to find a way to advance the education of the clever pupils."

Principal W. S. Murray, Robert College, Constantinople, Turkey: "Our students are usually older than the age limit in the respective grades; so, when a student does the work of his grade fairly well and when we think that he can do the work of the next grade, we advance him at any time. We have had a boy begin the year with the second class and finish the year with the fourth class. In such cases advancement depends largely on ability to learn to use the English language."

A boy writes in the *High School Recorder* of the Brooklyn Boys' High School: "Is there any better way of becoming acquainted with our schoolmates than by the present system of promotion? I think not. We now have acquaintances in nearly every room of the building. What with advances and conditions the classes are so divided that we soon get rid of the narrow-mindedness which used to exist. The future must bring us directly in touch with a far greater number of students. This is another one of the almost innumerable blessings of the new system." Harold Callahan is the boy.

Principal J. Wallis, Queen Alexandra School, Toronto: "What is so clearly for the children's good must surely be a possibility, if we set ourselves resolutely to accomplish it. I purpose trying what can be done in this school."

J. R. Inch, chief superintendent of education, Fredericton, New Brunswick: "I will give careful consideration to your suggestions, with a view of possibly introducing the plan in the schools of New Brunswick."

C. L. Sawyer, ex-principal of high school, Minneapolis, Minn.: "There is no reason why in a city like Minneapolis three million dollars worth of school property should lie idle for nearly one-third of the year. I would divide the year into four terms, allowing entrance of pupils to the high school every term. In this way I would shorten the high-school course to three years for those who put in four terms per year, and four years for those who through illness or lack of ability, physical or mental, are unable to remain in school for the entire year. I would promote pupils according to the number of studies completed."

W. L. Sayre, principal Manual Training High School, Philadelphia (extract from Annual Report to the Board of Education, 1906): "Finally, as to the real work of the school itself. It has largely been left free to work out its educational salvation in accordance with its own ideas, and possibly with little sympathy with narrow conventional usages and methods. Its roster is so arranged that the requirements of both the bright pupil and the slower one are adequately met. By grouping the more clever boys in separate sections, and advancing both the brighter and slower classes as rapidly as they are capable of taking the instruction, the 'demon of uniformity' which goes up

and down the educational world, seeking to devour the individuality of our school children, is thereby exorcised and the freest play to the pupils' intellectual life is guaranteed.

"Instead of pursuing throughout the whole school year some dozen or more parallel studies, with infrequent recitations, and with a hard and fast examination at the final heat, our school year is divided into three terms—fall, winter, and spring—each term seeing the beginning and completion of some subject, or some rounded division of a subject, involving as few distinct studies at one time as possible. At the end of the school year, with all the work of that year thoroughly covered, the boy who, so far as in him lies, has to the best of his ability done good and faithful work, is rewarded with promotion. When the three years' course is finished, the slower boy, having possibly not 'arrived' at the standard whose educational exponent is 70, may not receive his diploma, but he has got out of the school all there was in it for *him*—which is of more value than many diplomas. Of course, he may repeat the year, but the strong probabilities are that the kind of training which has opened so many doors to him, will enable him to enter through one of these doors to the successful prosecution of his life work."

Superintendent M. A. Whitney, Elgin, Ill.: "We have had promotion by subjects for ten years. We also have half-yearly promotions. This makes it easy for pupils to gain time. We do not require pupils to take all of the work of any grade unless they are capable of doing so. They may take what they are able now and do the rest at some other time. We have a few irregular students, but irregularities do not trouble us now. At first teachers were a little annoyed by having one or two pupils come from another room, but they have become accustomed to it. We think more of what is best for the child than of what is convenient for the teacher."

Superintendent J. M. White, Carthage, Mo.: "A rule requiring a high-school pupil to repeat *all* the subjects of a certain term or year because he failed in one or more is simply monstrous. I have never before heard of such a practice."

G. W. Evans, headmaster of the Charlestown High School, Boston: "I think the development of the plan of promotion by subject is sure to lead to two fundamental questions: first, in regard to accuracy and conformity in the definition of different subjects, and, second, in regard to some efficient test and record of the pupils' achievements."

"The college authorities have already formulated a set of definitions for a good many secondary-school subjects. In my opinion, these definitions need to be carefully reconsidered, if they are to serve as definitions for the same subjects in secondary work which is not directly preparatory for college. The college definitions are, it seems to me, too technical, too rigid, and require

in many cases a conventional arrangement of topics not calculated to promote that flexibility which is necessary for sound educational progress.

"On the other hand, the marking system even in the revised form which is now in favor is profoundly unsatisfactory and has always been so. It is unquestionably true that the pupil may have satisfactory marks—that is to say, marks which will permit him to obtain his diploma of a school or his admission certificate of a college, without having the information and the accomplishments that are absolutely requisite for the proper continuation of his studies. In these two lines, then, a great deal of work is to be done, if, as I hope, the system of promotion by subject prevails. I hope that your committee in continuing its work may see fit to open one or both of these important questions.

"A mark of 60 per cent. means nothing except in connection with pretty definite information as to how marks are assigned. If I were allowed to state an ideal form of the rule referred to, I should say: Promotion shall be made by subjects. A student shall be considered to have satisfactorily completed a subject prescribed in any term, when the teacher is willing to certify that he has the minimum information and capacity that should be expected of him in order to go on with the next grade of instruction in the same subject."

Dr. W. B. Gunnison, principal of Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn: "It seems to me that the statement made by Principal Evans, of the Charlestown High School, is an exceedingly able statement. It is exactly my idea of what the minimum marks should be. The only question is: What shall we name the point? New York names it 60 per cent., and a rose by any other name would smell as sweet.

"I am delighted to get the indication of the trend of votes on the circular, and particularly on the matter of subject-promotion. Wherever I have spoken of this matter publicly, I have always premised my remarks with a statement that it seemed queer that we should even discuss the question of promotion by subject, inasmuch as I believe there is hardly a city in the country—and certainly not a small city—that has not promotion by subjects as an established plan, and that in discussing it in New York we are simply showing how far behind we are. Therefore your statement is really expected. It is a good thing, however, to have the actual vote."

F. S. Tisdale, superintendent, Watertown, N. Y.: "My opinion in regard to flexibility and variety is that there should be sufficient flexibility to the school course profitably to employ the time of the students, but there should not be such a great variety as to cause the school to be turned into a chaos, and thus defeat the very end sought.

"As to promotion by subjects or by grades, pupils are promoted by grades in the primary and grammar schools, with this exception, that whenever a pupil, by reason of age or special aptitude, is able to do the work of the next

grade, he is promoted to that grade. In the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades, in which we have the departmental system, the promotion is practically by subjects. That is, in case a pupil has done satisfactory work in all except one subject, such a pupil is allowed to advance, but is required to do double work in the subject in which he has not met the requirements. That is, he takes both the work of the advanced grade and also the work which he has just passed over. In case a pupil of the eighth has completed all the work of the grammar school satisfactorily excepting one or two subjects, the pupil is allowed to enter the high school, to take two or three subjects, as the case may be. Such a pupil, however, continues to rank as a grammar-school pupil; his attendance is credited in the grammar school, and the pupil does not become a student of high-school rank until the subjects which are lacking are properly made up.

"It can be easily arranged so that each student can be advanced as rapidly as his ability will permit, without reference to his fellows, by taking additional subjects. Of the plan, however, which is practiced in a few places, of disregarding all grading and having no classification by classes, I would not approve. All classes have their limitations as to the amount of time which can be given to each student or to each group of students. If it were possible to have a small number of pupils to each teacher, it would be possible to permit in the grammar schools each pupil to advance without reference to his fellows. But where the number of pupils for each teacher exceeds twenty, this plan hardly seems to me to be practicable.

"So far as promotion from the grades is concerned, under our plan the bright pupil reaches the high school at twelve years of age, the dull one at fifteen. It seems to me that, all things considered, twelve years is young enough for even a bright pupil to enter the high school."

President A. T. Hadley, Yale University: "Anything that increases the efficiency of our schools will tend to show the advantage of live teaching over mechanical teaching; and flexibility will doubtless be a help in this direction. But we must not expect very quick results from a change of plan, unless accompanied by great intelligence on the part of principals and supervisors.

"With a good amount of money and air space per capita, the larger the school the better you can provide for individual needs. This fact is often overlooked, because people compare small schools which have large endowment and space per capita with large schools whose conditions are less favorable in these respects."

President J. G. Schurman, Cornell University: "Let me say in reply in a single word that I believe in promotion on the basis of work done, and I think that when a pupil has passed in any subject he ought to be advanced even though the majority of the class to which he then belonged has failed in that subject. The more capable or better-trained pupil ought not to be sacrificed to the average or less than average pupils."

On the problem of shortening courses the following opinions are of interest.

Rome G. Brown, president of the Associated Harvard Clubs, Minneapolis, Minn.: "Answering your inquiries: I have not paid any particular attention to the secondary-school question, except as incidental to the question of the three-year course which I studied for a couple of years as chairman of the three-year course committee of the Associated Harvard Clubs. However, my studies convinced me that the total time required for a liberal education, which at the present time is on the basis of sixteen years, must be shortened. I believe the shortening process has got to be brought about gradually. I believe that eventually the shortening process must be carried to the extent that substantially a total of two years will be cut off from the present period of sixteen years. A sixteen-year period for a liberal education from the primary school to the degree of A.B. makes the average graduate twenty-two years of age when he receives his A.B.; for the average age of entrance to the primary school is approximately six years. This makes at the present time twelve years from entrance to the primary school to entrance at the university, and an average entrance at the age of eighteen or eighteen and one-half years, and, as I say, the receipt of the A.B. degree at the age of twenty-two or twenty-two and one-half years. I am speaking only of averages.

"Now, it is not wise to carry out at once what must ultimately be the result of the necessary shortening process; that is, it is not feasible to shorten the entire period required for a liberal education by cutting off two years at once. I believe that one of the years can, and should be, and must be cut off in the college course. I do not believe any further shortening should be allowed to be made in the college course, and I believe that the shortening in the college course should be the first reform. We have then cut down the period by one year, and we have made graduation at the average age of twenty-one years instead of twenty-two, and have left the periods in the secondary schools the same as before. When the college course has been shortened to three years, and until a further shortening is attempted in the time occupied in the secondary schools (I am using this term "secondary" as meaning everything below the colleges), I believe that the high-school period should be retained at four years. The shortening of the college course would require perhaps some higher requirements; and I think a thorough high-school course is necessary, that the four-year period in the high school should be kept, and that the standard should be maintained and even raised. Indeed, I think the same thing is true in connection with and after a further shortening of time in the schools leading up to college. When the college course has been shortened to three years, and the total period for a liberal education has been made fifteen years instead of sixteen, I think the periods should be as follows:

Primary and intermediate schools together.....	5 years
Grammar school.....	3 years
High school.....	4 years
College.....	3 years
Total.....	15 years

"But I believe that the shortening process must be further carried on to the extent of one year, and that that shortening has got to come in the school period prior to the college course, as I do not believe in any further attempted shortening of the college course. It seems to me that this further shortening should be made in the period occupied by the primary school, or in the periods which under your Plan B you call the primary and intermediate school periods; and I think those two periods should eventually be made four years, and the grammar school retained at three and the high school at four and the college at three, making a total for liberal education of fourteen years, which would give the average student his A.B. in his twenty-first year, that is, when he is twenty or twenty and one-half. Then with three or four years of professional study he would get his professional degrees at twenty-two or twenty-four, and would be ready for active work in one, two, or three years thereafter, according to the length of time which he spent in apprenticeship years necessary to any special profession. The period of active work would average about the age of twenty-five years, and in some cases would be the age of twenty-three or twenty-four years. This would be two years less than the present period, and I think that that amount of shortening is desirable, and that it must come, and that it will come."

Superintendent S. D. Brooks, Boston: "Answering question No. 21 as to what objections I have to Plan B, I wish to say that the desire for mathematical uniformity has obscured the real situation. In my judgment, a better division would be as follows: primary school, 5 years; grammar school, 3 years; high school, 4 years; college, 4 years. Briefly, the reasons are that the child at the beginning of his school course is not largely responsible for his own conduct, while at the end of his high-school course we expect to hold him entirely responsible for his own conduct. It is desirable that between these two points there be a gradual increase in the amount of responsibility placed upon pupils. We have ample evidence that beginning with ten or eleven years there is a rapid increase in the child's desire to control himself; or, conversely stated, we find at this point very strong objections arising to control by authority.

"In my judgment, it is very desirable that children from the first to the fifth grade be placed in buildings separate from those which include the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. In our system this division may be readily adopted by providing a central grammar school for these three upper grades, and several primary buildings for the five lower grades. In this central grammar school the ideals of discipline and the amount of responsibility

placed upon the child would be radically different from the conditions prevailing in the primary schools. These grammar schools would unquestionably profit by the maintenance of the departmental system of instruction. This in turn would prepare pupils better for the high-school work to follow.

"Boston for many years has had a division between the third and fourth grades. It has always been deemed harmful, and this very year it has been discontinued. We should look with grave disfavor upon any effort to revive it."

Professor C. Davidson, Department of Education, University of Maine: "I would have an elementary school of six years, beginning with the first grade. This school should be a unit and comparatively independent of the higher schools. . . . I would provide a six-year higher school, divided into a junior high school of two years, and the various general, commercial, technical, etc., high schools of four years. I believe the junior high school with the leading subjects departmental is a better school than a grammar school of the seventh and eighth grades."

Superintendent M. C. Smart, Littleton, N. H.: "There is an undoubted need for a readjustment of programmes so as to allow greater flexibility. The difficulty in making the change lies, I think, principally in three conditions: first, the additional cost; second, the difficulty of securing competent teachers; third, the uncertainty of educators as to just what needs to be done. The second condition depends quite largely on the first. When the people awake to the conviction that the teacher is the most important factor in the development of the child, and the consequent advancement of civilization, they will doubtless be willing to provide the means necessary to secure the best talent for this important vocation. Both the first and the second depend to a large extent on the third. So long as the leaders in educational thought are divided in opinion as to what are the essential things in subject-matter, methods, and administrative practice, the people cannot be blamed for being unwilling to furnish money for uncertain experiments. But when we have reached an agreement upon the essentials, and have convinced the people that certain things are necessary to the highest welfare of their children and their communities, I believe the necessary means will be forthcoming.

"As to Plans A and B, it seems to me that neither fills the bill. There seems now to be a tendency to lengthen the high-school curriculum by working downward into the grades. This seems to me natural and wholesome. I believe the tendency is toward an affirmative answer to the question: 'Should the twelve-year course of study be equally divided between the elementary school and the secondary school?'

"In our country, particularly in New England, foreign languages, commonly, though perhaps erroneously, regarded as high-school subjects, are begun too late, after the best period for the acquisition of a foreign language has

begun to wane. French and German should be begun far down in the grades, and Latin much earlier than is the prevailing custom, and the methods should be adapted to the child mind. The elements of other subjects commonly relegated to the high school could also be taught much earlier than is commonly done.

"The theory I know is not new, but the practice has yet to come in most of the New England schools at least. At present I do not favor a three-year college curriculum, but with a proper readjustment and improvement of the work below that might come without detriment to the student."

W. C. Sabine, dean of the Lawrence Scientific School, Harvard University: "On the general question I have a very decided opinion, which I am glad to give you. I believe thoroughly in the undisguised three-year course in college leading to the bachelor's degree. I do not believe in a compromise plan of three years in college and one year in a professional school. I believe in very considerable flexibility in the secondary-school instruction and a corresponding adaptation of the admission requirements of the colleges."

Professor A. O. Norton, Harvard University: "At Harvard exceptional men may do the course in three years. These are exceptional men, as our records show, for they are men of considerably higher average scholarship than the four-year men. Obviously they are able to work not only faster, but more efficiently, than the four-year men. Our principle is that these men should not be restrained from doing their work at their best speed by the theory that a four-year course is the traditional time for all. The same principle should apply to every stage of school life. Note in this connection the admirably flexible scheme in the schools of Cambridge, Mass., by which the elementary-school work may be completed in seven, eight, or nine years, according to the student's ability.

"Theoretically, compulsory attendance at school for nine years is desirable; but only in case a far greater variety of schools, or studies is opened to students from twelve to fifteen. I certainly disbelieve in compelling all children between these ages to go through our present grammar-school course, or a practical continuation of it. In my opinion, this course is adapted only to a minority of the school population between these ages; and, as a matter of fact, only a minority of these children are to be found in the upper grammar-school grades. After eliminating all external causes for leaving school, such as illness, poverty, and the like, we find a chief cause in the failure of the grammar schools to adapt themselves to the actual needs of the majority. To me, the plain lesson is that we must offer work of far greater variety, and give freedom of choice, properly supervised, between various courses.

"My theory of a liberal education—so far as organization is concerned—is this: The work should be continuous, without abrupt breaks, for the

whole period. Each year's work should represent the best possible attainment for each student up to that point, without reference to what is to follow; so that at whatever point the student leaves school he will have had all that could be done for him under any conditions, at that stage. If this vital principle is observed, division by trienniums or quadrenniums will be beside the point. Both are objectionable if they imply discontinuity. In general, I think a better plan is a seven-year grammar-school course (including primary and intermediate grades), followed by five years in the high school, for the average student. Exceptional students should be allowed to do the work in four years."

T. W. Richards, professor of chemistry, Harvard University: "I have the same objection to Plan B that I have to Plan A, or to any other plan which uses time of study, or a fixed number of courses of study, as the chief criterion of fitness. I believe that some minds can gain more in two years than others can in four years, and that, if we try to hold back the bright ones to the pace of the slow ones, civilization will be retarded, because the best minds, the leaders, will not be allowed to attain their full development."

Superintendent E. B. Durfee, Fall River, Mass.: "We have always had a nine-year course below the high school, so in that respect Plan B does not differ materially from our plan. If the requirements of the colleges will permit it, I should like to see Plan B tried in the secondary schools."

Miss Kate E. Turner, of Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, has by request furnished the following statement on programme-making:

In the making of a programme for a large school it is imperative that the maker of the school programme have an accurate and thorough knowledge of the organization and mechanism of the school, and character of the work done by its students. Schools differ so largely in their working characteristics and in their facilities that what would fit one school in the way of a programme would be totally inadequate and a misfit for another. It is quite evident that schools vary as much as pupils vary, and any project to prescribe a programme that would be a panacea for the trials and disorders of special programmes in any and all schools of a system would be a failure. Schools need special programmes quite as much as do pupils.

In the school in which I am interested the reports show that the majority of failures in the earlier grades occur in Latin and mathematics. These two subjects, then, are the subjects that will necessarily come up for adjustment most frequently in the special programmes, and must be borne in mind when the school programme is being drafted. The main object, after providing means for making up conditioned subjects, is to keep each pupil as far as possible with his regular class.

There are three ways in which these subjects have been cared for in this school.

i. By providing for each class, where the subject in question is being taught, a corresponding period for it in the grade below and in the grade above. Thus, if 2B Latin is taught the first period daily in one class, there should be found through the entire school a Latin class the first period each day in each grade. Or if this is not possible, through some necessity of organization or of shortage of teachers, the need is often met by having the subject taught in the lower grade while the upper grade is having a study period. This does not disarrange the pupil's programme in the least, and keeps him with his mates in all subjects except Latin.

2. By segregating all pupils with like conditions, and drafting a programme especially for them. This necessitates no special programming for each member of the class, and is simply forestalling the needs of a number of pupils who have similar variations from the regular course of study. Thus, it is often possible to find in a 1B or 2A grade twenty-five or thirty pupils who carry straight work with just Latin below grade. These pupils have been put in one section by themselves, and 1A or 1B Latin made the Latin for the class. This method of looking after irregular pupils has not been very satisfactory, as it reorganizes the sections and breaks up attachments that have been formed among classmates or between class-teacher and pupil. It also brands the class as inferior to the rest of the grade, which is very undesirable.

3. By organizing special classes for conditioned pupils, and not allowing them to take the conditioned subjects in the regular classes of the grade below. If planned with care, this method uses no more teaching force than any other method, and it saves many of the beginning classes from overcrowding by reason of having the "drop-backs" with them. It also gives opportunity to treat pupils who are going over a subject for a second time in a somewhat different manner from those who are attempting it for the first time. It has been possible sometimes to attempt to have these "drop-backs" catch up with the regular grade, or at least to do more than the classes who are going over the work for the first time. In organizing these special "drop-back" classes the main object is to set them at a period of the day when the majority of the students of the grade have a study period. This means, then, that where this system is to be used the study periods of the several sections must be set for the same period, so that nothing may interfere with the majority or all of the conditioned students dropping out into the special class.

The first and third methods have worked out best in this school, and the third method has been used only in the lower grades. To the subjects (other than Latin and mathematics) in which a comparatively small number are conditioned, not very much special attention need be given in the general drafting of the regular programme, other than to see to it that a subject

comes the same period each day on a class programme. That is, if it comes the second period Monday, it should come the second period every other day that it occurs. Great complexity and difficulty is encountered when a subject changes from one period to another.

Other considerations that are taken into account in drafting a school programme are the following: Each section-teacher where possible keeps his own class through the four years as section-teacher, and, if practicable and desirable, teaches his own class for four years. This keeps him in touch with the work and interests of his section. Each subject-teacher keeps a class one year, where the nature of the subject makes it possible and profitable. This saves much time in getting acquainted each term, and yet provides for enough variety of method and view-point of instruction. Thus, a normal pupil changes his Latin teacher once a year and meets in his course four different instructors in Latin. On the actual making of special programmes I should like to say a few words. For the fall term irregular students are summoned for the Saturday before school begins, to have their programmes adjusted, and for the February term, the day before the new term begins. Each grade adviser has a copy of the school programme for all the classes of his grade, the grade above, and the grade below. Each pupil presents his report for the previous term. On this are all conditions and advancements to date. Most of the advisers have the programmes copied on the board, and the pupils are able to do a great deal toward making their own programmes. One teacher used mimeograph copies of the school programme for the pupils to work from, and reports that they were much more expeditious working in this way than from the board copy. Each pupil's programme is O.K.'d after personal conference with the adviser. Then three copies are made: one for the grade adviser, one for the section teacher, and one for filing in the office. Very rarely does it happen that any desired combination of subjects cannot be made. When it does happen, it has always been possible to map out the course in another way; but this has happened so seldom that it does not figure as a contingency in programme-making. The grade adviser studies the case and recommends to the principal any desired deviation from the regular course of study. If the principal approves, it is put into operation. The grade adviser is not delegated with the authority of dropping a subject or advancing a pupil in a subject.

The one phase of special programme-making that is engaging experimentation with us at present is that stage of the process which comes after all programmes have been adjusted, and it is found that a few classes have become depleted and others unwarrantably large by reason of pupils dropping out or dropping in. At present the most effective way we have of overcoming this difficulty is by having duplicate classes at the same period in the same grade. If both become small, they may be merged; if one becomes large and the other small, they may be equalized; if both become large, of course it means that a new section must be organized. Under any of these

conditions the pupil's programme is not disturbed. We are working on this part of the problem now. The essential factor in all the special programme-making is that the pupil be put to work at the start of the term; that he get in at the first recitations; the other matters can be adjusted later.

Sets of answers to the questionnaires have been received from the following states, territories, and foreign countries:

*A. North-Atlantic Division—*

Maine .....	7
New Hampshire .....	9
Massachusetts .....	53
Vermont .....	9
Rhode Island .....	8
Connecticut .....	11
New York .....	148
New Jersey .....	24
Pennsylvania .....	30
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	299

*B. South-Atlantic Division—*

Delaware .....	1
Maryland .....	7
District of Columbia .....	6
Virginia .....	3
West Virginia .....	3
North Carolina .....	3
South Carolina .....	3
Georgia .....	5
Florida .....	3
	<hr/>
	34

*C. South-Central Division—*

Kentucky .....	13
Tennessee .....	3
Alabama .....	3
Mississippi .....	1
Texas .....	8
Louisiana .....	4
Arkansas .....	1
Oklahoma .....	3
Indian Territory .....	2
	<hr/>
	38

*D. North-Central Division—*

Ohio .....	28
Indiana .....	16
Illinois .....	43
Michigan .....	17
Wisconsin .....	19
Iowa .....	10
Minnesota .....	16
Missouri .....	11
North Dakota .....	1
South Dakota .....	9
Nebraska .....	6
Kansas .....	7

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183
*E. Western Division—*

Montana .....	3
Wyoming .....	3
Colorado .....	9
New Mexico .....	2
Arizona .....	2
Utah .....	4
Idaho .....	2
Washington .....	12
Oregon .....	2
California .....	20

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59
*F. Dependencies—*

Alaska .....	1
Hawaii .....	3
Philippine Islands .....	1

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5
*G. Foreign Division—*

Canada .....	11
Mexico .....	3
England .....	2
Scotland .....	1
Russia .....	2
Turkey .....	1
China .....	1
Japan .....	1

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22

These sets of answers have come from the following classes of educators:

Superintendents .....	253
Principals .....	239
Teachers .....	37
College presidents .....	25
College professors .....	28
Normal-school presidents .....	26
Normal-school teachers .....	4
Supervisors of training schools .....	7
Inspectors of schools .....	11
State superintendents of schools.....	6
Lecturers .....	3
Minister of public instruction.....	1

640

## SUMMARY OF TABULATION

## I. QUESTIONNAIRE ON PROMOTION BY SUBJECT

	Yes	No	Indefinite	No Answer	Total
1. In your school is there much flexibility and variety?.....	349	205	8	45	607
2. Do you promote your students by subjects or by grades?.....	261	203	11	42	607
3. Do you make a student who has failed in some of the work of the grade take all the work of the grade again?.....	206	357	6	38	607
4. Do your schools take care of the individual student's needs in any way?.....	473	86	5	43	607
5. Do you think each student should be advanced as rapidly as his ability will permit without reference to his fellows?.....	530	60	3	14	607
If not, why not?.....					
6. Should the brilliant student be kept back with the dull student?.....	53	535	6	13	607
If so, why?.....					
7. Should a student be given extra credit for superior work?.....	383	120	32	72	607
If so, on what basis?.....					
8. Would individual programmes result in greater interest and a better quality of work?.....	290	170	66	81	607
9. Do you regard the quality or the quantity of a student's work more important?*	396	16	48	147	607
10. Would an advantage given to a bright student discourage or injure a dull one?	131	368	40	68	607
11. Under a flexible scheme would a precocious student be prepared for life too young?.....	179	349	34	45	607
12. Should the brilliant student take more or less work than the dull student?†.....	391	10	35	171	607

\* Quality, 396; quantity 16.

† More, 391; less, 10.

## SUMMARY OF TABULATION—Continued

	Yes	No	Indefinite	No Answer	Total
13. Would the flexible plan help to do away with the mechanical teacher?.....	408	112	34	53	607
14. Would it be just as practicable to maintain the flexible individual plan in a large school, where the working force is greater, as in a small school?.....	398	128	23	58	607
15. Do you favor the advancement by subject plan?.....	428	113	17	49	607
If not, what are your objections to it?.....	76	212	4	315	607
16. Do you know of a better plan?.....	434	13	3	157	607
If so, what is it?.....					
17. Would you like to have this topic discussed at an early N. E. A. meeting?.....					
18. What proportion of the pupils that leave your school or schools are recruited from those who are compelled to repeat tasks once satisfactorily done?*	...	...	...	366	607
19. What percentage of "left back" or "left down" pupils are promoted the following term?†	...	...	...	356	607
20. Do you approve the following Rules 1 and 2 of the New York City Board of Education, in force since May 3, 1904, the rescinding of which is now generally desired? No student shall be promoted from the first term to the second or from the second term to the third, whose conditions aggregate ten (10) hours (periods) in subjects requiring preparation. No student shall be promoted from the third term to the fourth, or from the fourth term to the fifth, or from the fifth term to the sixth, whose conditions aggregate nine (9) hours, or if he be conditioned in three subjects requiring preparation.	103	192	54	258	607
21. Do you approve the following rule proposed last January by the Board of Superintendents in New York City?† Promotion shall be made by subjects. A student shall be considered to have satisfactorily completed a subject prescribed in any term when he has attained a mark of 60 per cent. and shall thereupon be promoted in such subject. If not, will you say why not?.....	209	123	74	111	607
22. Are you willing to be quoted as holding the views expressed in your answers to above questions?.....	415	24	1	167	607

\* Average of 241 answers 18.7%

† Average of 251 answers, 67.7%

‡ January, 1906.

## II. QUESTIONNAIRE ON THREE-YEAR COURSES

## Plan A—Present system:

Primary school..... 4 years  
 Grammar school..... 4 years  
 High school..... 4 years  
 College..... 4 years

A liberal education..... 16 years

## Plan B—Proposed system:

Primary school..... 3 years  
 Intermediate school..... 3 years  
 Grammar school..... 3 years  
 High school..... 3 years  
 College..... 3 years

A liberal education..... 15 years

## SUMMARY OF TABULATION—Continued

	Yes	No	Indefinite	No Answer	Total
1. Do you think Plan B is an improvement on Plan A?.....	240	230	24	29	523
2. Do you think it worth while to save this year before professional study is begun? ...	306	154	20	43	523
3. Do you think the transitions in B easier than in A?.....	213	197	44	69	523
4. Would the year added to the pre-high-school period discourage more students from finishing to that point?.....	201	236	51	35	523
5. Would this additional year provide departmental study for many who do not enter high school?.....	268	94	70	91	523
6. Would you favor departmental teaching throughout the three years of the grammar school under Plan B, at least in large cities?.....	324	127	32	40	523
7. Would the nine years from the age of six till that of fifteen be too long for the period of compulsory education? .....	115	353	14	41	523
8. Would Plan B prevent many from dropping out in high school during the first year?	210	198	52	63	523
9. With the high-school course reduced to three years, would more students complete it? .....	294	133	44	52	523
10. Under Plan B do you think more students would go to college?.....	209	192	46	76	523
11. Which plan is prevalent in your school?....	179A	21B	14	109	523
12. What proportion of your students go to high school?*	.....	.....	.....	194	523
13. What proportion drop out of high school during the first year?†.....	.....	.....	.....	220	523
14. What proportion go to college?‡.....	.....	.....	.....	185	523
15. Do you think the divisions in B would be easier to manage than those in A?.....	162	239	21	101	523
16. Under B could students in case of necessity discontinue their work at more convenient stages than under A?.....	170	197	44	112	523
17. Is the tendency in your community to shorten the period of preparation for life?..	230	211	15	67	523
18. Would students under B be crowded by too much work?.....	138	241	54	90	523
19. Would the triennial period system be better for flexible advancement by subject?..	186	175	44	118	523
20. Do you think the proposed shortening of the high-school and college courses to three years each would take anything indispensable from them, or cheapen them?	210	209	29	75	523
21. What objections have you to Plan B?.....					

\* Average of 329 answers, 48.1%.

† Average of 303 answers, 25.4%.

‡ Average of 338 answers, 29%.

Andrew W. Edson, associate superintendent of schools, New York City, has kindly furnished the following:

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 \*Gilbert, *The School and Its Life*, chaps. v, vii.  
 Landon, *School Management*, Part II, chap. iii.  
 Payne, *School Supervision*, chap. v, vi, viii.  
 Pickard, *School Supervision*, chap. xxi.  
 Prince, *Courses and Methods*, p. 305.  
 \*Prince, *School Administration*, chap. vi.  
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 United States Commissioner: \*1898-99, chap. vii (full).

## PROGRAMMES, TIME-TABLES, REPORT CARDS, PLAN AND PROGRESS BOOKS

- Currie, *Common School Education*, p. 177.  
 \*Chancellor, *Our Schools*, pp. 386-411.  
 \*Dutton, *School Management*, chap. x.  
 Fitch, *Lectures on Teaching*, chap. ii.  
 Keith, *Elementary Education*, chap. vi.  
 \*Kotlmann, *School Hygiene*, chap. viii.  
 Landon, *School Management*, Part II, chap. v.  
 O'Shea, *Dynamic Factors*, chap. xviii.  
 Payne, *School Supervision*, chap. v, vi.  
 Prince, *School Administration*, chap. x, App. F.  
 Raub, *School Management*, p. 72.  
 Raymond, *Principles of Education*, chap. xiv.

\*"Of special value."

\*Seeley, *Foundations*, chap. v.

\*Seeley, *School Management*, chap. v.

\*Shearer, *Grading of Schools*, p. 140.

\*White, *School Management*, p. 86.  
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\*"Of special value."

## LOS ANGELES SCHOOLS

ERNEST J. LICKLEY  
Los Angeles, Cal.

The marvelous growth of Los Angeles during the past decade is almost without parallel. The city today has a population of more than 280,000 souls. There are 50,000 children enrolled in the public schools. These children are taught by more than 1,000 teachers. The great growth of the city has been due in no small measure to its excellent school facilities. Although the development of the city has been almost unprecedented, the schools have kept well in the vanguard. The excellent condition of the schools is largely due to the fact that the people at large take such an active interest in all school matters. Perhaps the people of no other city have such civic pride in their public schools as the people of Los Angeles.

About three years ago, as the result of a campaign of education, about one hundred of the leading men of the city met to discuss the advisability of placing the administration of the public schools in the hands of a non-partisan board of education, consisting of seven members to be elected at large. The meeting of this committee of one hundred resulted in the nomination by petition of seven of the most prominent men of the city without regard to political affiliation. This non-partisan board of education was elected by a large majority over the regular party nominees. The conduct of school affairs by these men during the two years of their incumbency was so eminently successful that a non-partisan school board in Los Angeles is no longer a theory, for at the last municipal election, held in December of last year another non-partisan board of education was elected with practically no opposition.

Los Angeles has also been fortunate in the character of its teachers. This can be attributed to the standard of requirement and the location of the city. Before being eligible to take the examinations for a position in the city schools, a teacher must

be a graduate of a high school and a normal school. Many men and women who have attained success as teachers in the East have been attracted to this city by the delightful climate of southern California. Los Angeles, as the metropolis of the Southwest, has been the natural center to which they have come. A careful study of the city school statistics for the past ten years shows that a large percentage of the successful teachers have been teachers of experience from the North and East. This cosmopolitan teaching corps has continually infused new life and new ideas into the school system, and as a result Los Angeles has gleaned the best from far and near.

One of the most important branches of the school department is the one that looks after the physical health of the children. This department is systematically organized, and once each term every child in the schools is examined for physical defects. Nurses are employed whose entire time is devoted to visiting the schools and making personal inspections. Any illness or any defective child is at once reported, and competent medical attention is available immediately, regardless of the condition of the family from which the child comes. The services of the best specialists in the city are at the command of the child from the poorest home. In the congested districts hundreds of poor children are given medical attention each year through the efforts of the school department.

A feature of the Los Angeles schools that is unique is the method of handling truancy. The city has established three special schools to which persistent truants and so-called incorrigibles are sent. No coercion nor force is ever employed in transferring these pupils from the regular schools to the special schools. No truant officer nor even a teacher accompanies them. They are told the purpose of these schools and the reason they are sent there, and then allowed to go of their own accord. No pupil sent in this way has yet failed to reach the special school promptly. The teachers in these schools are all men. In these special schools no corporal punishment is used, and the only means by which truants are kept there is the personality of the teacher and an appeal to the fairness of the boy. The schools

have no connection with the juvenile court, and no recourse is had to the court or any officer to enforce a pupil's attendance at these schools; yet the remarkable fact remains that these schools, composed of the so-called incorrigibles and persistent truants, have maintained for a year an average attendance of over 98 per cent. After a boy has attended one of these schools for a period ranging from a few weeks to a few months, he is sent back to his own school, or in some cases to another school. The great purpose of these special schools is to prevent boys from being arrested for truancy and to keep them, as far as possible, in their own school, or, if taken from their own school, to return them to a regular school as speedily as their welfare will permit. In this way boys are corrected of their truancy without the stigma of a juvenile-court record. In attempting to solve the truancy question the Los Angeles schools have met with gratifying results.

The ungraded school was introduced into the department about five years ago. Today there are twenty-two ungraded rooms in the city, and their value has been amply demonstrated. To these rooms are sent pupils who are unable to keep up with the regular class work; who have recently come from a school where the course of study is radically different from that of Los Angeles; who are too bright for the average grade, and any others who for any reason are not adapted to the regular classroom work. Since the introduction of these ungraded rooms the number of expulsions and suspensions in the city schools, despite the great increase in population, has steadily declined. These rooms have been the means of keeping in school many boys and girls who otherwise would have dropped out of school all too soon.

Los Angeles is justly proud of its large Polytechnic High School, erected two years ago.<sup>1</sup> This is one of the best-equipped schools of its kind in the West. In response to a popular demand, the school has a night session from seven to nine o'clock. In all 2,100 pupils attend the school daily. This great school

<sup>1</sup> See frontispiece.

educates for practical life many of the large percentage of high-school pupils who never go to the university.

Taken in its entity, the Los Angeles school department keeps well apace with the best educational thought and movement of the day, and in a city whose civic pride is so pronounced the continued advancement of the schools is assured.

## DISCUSSION

### TEACHING THE NAMES OF ANIMALS AND PLANTS

WILLARD N. CLUTE

Joliet, Illinois

The idea seems to prevail in many places that the time spent in school in teaching the names of animals and plants is just so much time wasted. The proper botanical course, at least in my region, is pretty generally regarded as consisting of a half-year devoted to the gross structure and life-processes of seed-plants, followed by a half-year devoted chiefly to spore-plants and their evolution. It need hardly be said that, if adequate treatment is given these subjects in the periods allotted to them in the high-school course, little time will be left for teaching the names of plants.

And yet, if I mistake not, the identification of plants is the only phase of botany in which the general public is interested; it is frequently the only part of botany in which the pupil is interested; and it is certainly the only branch of the subject that he follows up after he has left school. Doubtless every teacher has remarked the surprise of pupils when they discover that botany is not chiefly concerned with the names of plants.

In any study, however, we cannot do much without knowing the names of the objects with which we deal. Possibly there would be a much larger percentage of the people permanently interested in botany if our school courses early took cognizance of the desire for the names of things. As it is, there are a great many persons in the position of the young lady who said she liked everything about flowers except botany. The number of people outside of school and college who are interested in systematic botany, at least to the extent of knowing the names of our common plants, is quite remarkable. We may gain some idea of it from the fact that more than sixty thousand copies of one popular guide to the wild flowers are said to have been sold in spite of a dozen or more competitors in the market.

In view of these conditions, we may query whether it is not desirable to pay a bit more attention to the systematic side of botany than we have been doing. In my own opinion, any course of botany may well begin with a half-year devoted to the gross structure of seed-plants, but I am not so sure that the second half can invariably be devoted to the spore-plants with the best results for the student. The farmer, the gardener, the horticulturist, the woodsman—in fact, all of us who come in contact with plants, whether at our work or on vacation, want to know, first of all, the names of the plants we encounter. The time has come, also, when a knowledge of

plant names and the ability to use a scientific key are prerequisites to many college courses of botany.

In response to this evident demand, I would suggest that in the second half-year the student be offered the choice of two different courses; one devoted to systematic botany, the other devoted to the more usual study of algae, mosses, ferns, etc. Bright and well-advanced pupils might be allowed to take both courses, if this would not conflict with other studies. For certain pupils, the more botany the better. Those intending to take up forestry, landscape or civil engineering, medicine, or the ministry will never be embarrassed by an overload of botany. The course in systematic botany would best be put on in the spring and, in my opinion, in addition to the mere work of identifying plants, should consist of a drill in the use of botanical terms, lectures on the history of botany, economic and medicinal plants, etc., with more or less practice in mounting plants and in naming plants from dried specimens. This would take up the time in dull weather. On all fair days, work in the field in the actual identification of plants should be required.

Let it not be too hastily said that in such a course the pupil would learn scarcely more than the names of plants. Systematic botany has as good grounds for being included in any scheme of real education as any other branch of the subject. While learning the names of plants, the student is also learning to be exact, to observe and compare carefully, to judge accurately; he is adding daily to his vocabulary; he is acquiring a vast first-hand knowledge of plant structure, plant relations, and plant ecology; and last, but by no means least, he is learning to use a technical key.

As a text for such a course, I favor a good and complete manual, such as Gray's. The botanical manual bristles with technical terms, to be sure, but after the pupil has got his bearings he rather enjoys the excitement of learning to handle them and prides himself upon his ability to use them. Moreover, it leaves nothing to be unlearned when he leaves school, as would a book of predigested information on the plants. My greatest objection, however, to the keys and floras accompanying many botanical texts is the fact that they are not complete. It is most discouraging to a pupil, after a prolonged but vain search for the name of a plant, to be told by the teacher that that particular plant is not in the book. The next time he meets with a difficulty he is likely to assume that this is another case of a missing plant and forego the labor of tracing it down. What is needed is a book that the pupil knows contains any plant he may find.

It is needless to say that a course such as I have indicated, to be most successful must be looked after by a teacher who is himself a good systematic botanist. Here, I think, is one of the greatest difficulties in the teaching of the names of plants; for, since few of our colleges lay much stress upon taxonomy, many teachers that are otherwise good botanists are not familiar with the flora of their respective regions. All such would have to

obtain the necessary knowledge outside of school hours, but to one interested in his work this is a matter of recreation rather than of labor. In any event, it would not require any very great effort to keep in advance of the first class, and subsequent classes would traverse about the same ground. A knowledge of the flora of a region is not beyond the reach of any teacher who desires it, and may be obtained without assistance.

If an entire course cannot be spared for systematic work, and it be desired to include more or less of this in other courses, I would suggest taking up some special subject, such as trees, ferns, or composites in early autumn, the study of algae and diatoms in late autumn or winter, and the study of the showy wild flowers in spring. Any teacher should be able to make a key to all the trees of his locality or to adapt such a key from a manual. Keys to the ferns may be found in several fern-books. The genera of algae, at least, may be decided if one has access to a compound microscope and the minimum of literature on the subject.

Along with the question of how to teach the names of plants goes the question of how to fix the names in the minds of the pupils so that they will stick. To stop the work as soon as the name is known is to attach an exaggerated importance to the mere name. In the study of trees, I have found it desirable to require a drawing of leaf and fruit, and a written comparison of the tree with any others that resemble it, as the elm with the hackberry, the buttonwood with the hard maple, the walnut with the butter-nut. A description of the way in which the fruit is distributed is also worth while. In work with the wild flowers, a pressed specimen accompanied by more or less data on a proper label may be required, though I am inclined to think that the making of herbarium specimens can easily be overdone. Pupils should certainly be taught to make good herbarium specimens, but the collection of a definite number of such specimens should not be considered as completing the course. In half-year courses, specimens may be preserved by each class for the use of other classes the following year in identifying plants from preserved material. The filling-out of extended analysis blanks seems to me a use of time that might be spent more profitably in other work. In place of this, some observations may be required regarding the ecology of the plant, such as the kind of insects that pollinate it, the way in which the insect is attracted, the methods of sheltering the pollen and nectar from the elements, and the way in which these are guarded from undesirable visitors.

What has here been said about botany applies in great measure to zoölogy. The limitations of the latter subject, however, appear to forbid an entire course devoted to identifying animal species. The more feasible course would be to take a few weeks during the spring migrations for the study of birds, and a similar term in autumn for a field-study of the insects, principally beetles, moths, and butterflies. The mammals, reptiles, and fishes are so few or so rarely found that the naming of occasional specimens presents

no difficulties. The wealth of material in birds and insects suggests that keys to the more noticeable or abundant species of the region be made and the student referred to some usable manual for the rarer species. The names of birds may be anchored in the minds of pupils by requiring a careful description of the habitat in which the specimen was found, the feeding habits, shape of the bill, and manner of flight. Work with the insects may well require a specimen of each properly mounted and labeled. A class equipped with good nets and collecting-bottles rarely has to be induced to take an interest in the work. The feeding habits of the insects might be required to be written up; and various other topics to be investigated will readily occur to the teacher and need not be here mentioned.

## IMPORTANT EDUCATIONAL BOOKS OF THE YEAR

The following list of books has been prepared in accordance with a suggestion adopted a year ago. As in the case of the list prepared at that time, an attempt has been made to select out of the more important books published during the last twelvemonth those which seem likely to have a special interest for teachers, particularly high-school teachers, either because of their value as textbooks or because of their more general and abiding significance.

An unfair advantage has doubtless been taken of the word "educational" in thus burdening it with so large a variety of bibliographic impedimenta. It must be remembered, however, that no one would be likely to profess the wisdom of being able to select at close range the very few books of genuine and long enduring *educational* value which any single year may be fortunate enough to produce. Attention may be called to the review of "Recent Educational Bibliography," prepared by Mr. J. I. Wyer, of the New York State Library, and published in the *School Review* for October, 1906. This valuable review has been for several years an annual feature of the *School Review* and will be repeated in the October number of 1907.

### EDUCATIONAL THEORY AND HISTORY

*Principles of Secondary Education.* By Charles DeGarmo. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. \$1.25.

Reviewed in the present number of the *School Review*.

*Report on Secondary Education and High Education in Essex.* By Michael E. Sadler. Chelmsford, Eng.: J. H. Nicholas, 1906.

*Classroom Management: Its Principles and Technique.* By William Chandler Bagley. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. \$1.25.

*The School and Its Life.* By Charles B. Gilbert. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1906. Pp. vii+259.

Reviewed in *School Review*, March, 1907.

*The Efficient Life.* By Luther Halsey Gulick. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1907.

Expert and yet untechnical counsel in regard to both physical and mental hygiene. A practical, sensible, and attractive statement of the principles of healthy-mindedness.

*The Psychological Principles of Education.* By Hermann Harrell Horne. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. xiii+435. \$1.75.

Reviewed in *School Review*, March, 1907.

*Structure and Growth of the Mind.* By W. Mitchell. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. 512. \$2.

*The Principles of Teaching, Based on Psychology.* By Edward L. Thorndike. Pp. 293+xii. New York: A. G. Seiler. \$1.25.

Reviewed in *School Review*, December, 1906.

*A History of Higher Education in America.* By Charles F. Thwing. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1906. Pp. xiii+501. \$3.

Reviewed in *School Review*, March, 1907.

*Leo Tolstoy, His Life and Work: Autobiographical Memoirs, Letters, and Biographical Material.* Compiled by Paul Birukoff and revised by Leo Tolstoy. Translated from the Russian. Vol. I; *Childhood and Early Youth.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This volume contains, among much other interesting matter, an account of Tolstoy's educational theories and his experiment in putting them into practice.

*Growth and Education.* By John M. Tyler. New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Sixty-five Years in the Life of a Teacher, 1841-1906.* By Edward Hicks Magill. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907. Pp. 323. \$1.50.

The autobiography of the first president of Swarthmore College. Contains an interesting account of some of the early struggles of the "elective system."

#### CIVICS AND SOCIOLOGY

*Newer Ideals of Peace.* By Jane Addams. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907.

A book remarkable alike for its high moral purpose and for its firm grasp of sociological details. Especially needed by teachers of history and civics to correct one-sided views of warfare and patriotism set forth in the usual textbooks.

*On the Civic Relations.* By Henry Holt. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907.

*Citizenship and the Schools.* By Jeremiah W. Jenks. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. \$1.25.

Reviewed in *School Review*, December, 1906.

*Sex and Society.* By W. I. Thomas. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1907.

A series of essays on the organic differences of sex. The rôle of sex in primitive social control, social feeling, industry, morality, family life, the evolution of modesty, and the present adventitious character of woman.

*The Heart of the Railway Problem: The History of Railway Discrimination in the United States, the Chief Efforts at Control, and the Remedies Proposed, with Hints from Other Countries.* By Frank Parsons. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

## HISTORY

- Complete Works of Abraham Lincoln.* The Gettysburg edition. 12 vols. New York: Francis D. Tandy Co.
- Documentary History of Reconstruction.* By Walter L. Fleming. Cleveland: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
- The American Nation: A History.* From original sources by associated scholars. Edited by Albert Bushnell Hart. Vol. VIII, *The Preliminaries of the Revolution*, by G. E. Howard. Vol. IX, *The American Revolution*, by Claude Halstead van Tyne. Vol. X, *The Confederation and the Constitution*, by Andrew C. McLaughlin. Vol. XI, *The Federalist System*, by John Spencer Bassett. Vol. XII, *The Jeffersonian System*, by Edward Channing. Vol. XIII, *The Rise of American Nationality*, by Kendrick Charles Babcock. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- History of the United States from the Compromise of 1850 to 1877.* By James Ford Rhodes. Vol. VI, 1866-1872. Vol. VII, 1872-1877. New York: The Macmillan Co.
- A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War.* By John Bach McMaster. Vol. VI, 1830-1842. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1907.
- Original Narratives of American History.* Edited by J. Franklin Jameson. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1907. Vol. III, *Early English and French Voyagers*.
- A Source of Greek History.* By Fred Morrow Fling. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1907. Pp. 380. \$1.00.

## LITERATURE AND LANGUAGE

## ENGLISH

- Literary History of the English People, from the Earliest Times to the Present Day.* By J. J. Jusserand. Vol II, Part I: *From the Renaissance to the Civil War*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Bibliography of James Russell Lowell.* By George Willis Cooke. New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.  
Beautifully printed, and invaluable to a student of American literature.
- Bibliography of Henry James.* By Le Roy Phillips. New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
- Ralph Waldo Emerson.* By George Edward Woodberry. "English Men of Letters." New York: The Macmillan Co. \$0.75.
- Henry Wadsworth Longfellow.* By Charles Eliot Norton.
- The Life and Letters of Leslie Stephen.* By Frederick William Maitland. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
- Life of Walt Whitman.* By Bliss Perry. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*Shakespeare and the Modern Stage.* By Sidney Lee. New York: Scribner's. \$2 net.

*The Text of Shakespeare.* By Thomas R. Lounsbury. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1906. Pp. 59. \$2.

Reviewed in *School Review*, April, 1907.

*The Higher Study of English.* By Albert S. Cook. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1906. Pp. 145.

Reviewed in *School Review*, April, 1907.

*A Brief English Grammar.* By Fred Newton Scott and Gertrude Buck. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1905. Pp. 197. \$0.60.

Reviewed in *School Review*, April, 1907.

*Talks on Teaching Literature.* By Arlo Bates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1906. Pp. 247. \$1.30.

Reviewed in *School Review*, March, 1907.

*Growth and Structure of the English Language.* By Otto Jespersen. Leipzig: Teubner; New York: Stechert.

An endeavor to "characterize the chief peculiarities of the English language, and to explain the growth and significance of those features in its structure which have been of permanent importance."

*A Course in Narrative Writing.* By Gertrude Buck and Elizabeth W. Morris. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. Pp. ix+200.

Reviewed in *School Review*, March, 1907.

#### GERMAN

*German Ideals of Today, and Other Essays of German Culture.* By Kuno Francke.

*An Anthology of German Literature.* By Calvin Thomas. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1907.

A well-made selection in modern German of earlier German literature from the earliest times to the sixteenth century. It can be profitably used as a reader to accompany a course of outline lectures upon the development of German literature. A second volume for literature since the sixteenth century is in preparation.

*Willkommen in Deutschland.* By William E. Mosher and Elizabeth Kadelbach. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1906.

An interesting glimpse of German life afforded through the medium of very easy prose.

*Am deutschen Herde.* By Oskar and Valerie Thiergen. Ginn & Co., 1906.

A series of letters and dialogues in simple German style, depicting children in Germany. A companion piece to No. 2, supplementing it in certain directions.

#### GREEK

*Homer and His Age.* By Andrew Lang. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1907.

A brilliant criticism of the theory that the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* are a patchwork of poems by different authors. Mr. Lang champions the unity of Homer.

*The Mythology of Greece and Rome.* By Arthur Fairbanks. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1907. \$1.50.

## LATIN

*A First Latin Book.* By William Gardner Hale. Boston and Chicago: Atkinson, Muntzer & Grover, 1907.

A book evidently written on the assumption that Latin is not a dead but a living language, and so much so that it can be studied alive from the very first day.

## SCIENCE AND MATHEMATICS

*Physiography* (for Colleges and Normal Schools). By Rollin D. Salisbury, University of Chicago. Henry Holt & Co. Pp. 775. With 210 illustrations, and nearly 30 colored plates.

This volume is not designed for high schools, but is a valuable reference book for high-school teachers and pupils.

*A First Course in Physics.* By Robert Andrews Millikan and Henry Gordon Gale. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. vi+488.

Reviewed in *School Review*, October, 1906.

*Recent Progress in the Study of Variation, Heredity and Evolution.* By Robert Heath Locke. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 299. \$2.

*The Human Mechanism: Its Physiology, Its Hygiene, and the Sanitation of Its Surroundings.* By Theodore Hough and William T. Sedgwick. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. 9+564.

Reviewed in *School Review*, April, 1907.

*Experimental Zoölogy.* By Thomas Hunt Morgan. New York: The Macmillan Co.

*The Teaching of Mathematics.* By J. W. A. Young. New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

The spirit of the book is broad and discriminating. The best exposition of the latest thinking in the pedagogics of mathematics in the language. Bibliography full and well selected.

*The Educational Significance of Sixteenth Century Arithmetic.* By Lambert Lincoln Jackson.

A valuable contribution to mathematical pedagogics.

*First-Year Mathematics.* By G. W. Myers and the Mathematical Faculty of the University High School, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

*Plane and Solid Geometry.* By Isaac Newton Faylor. New York: The Century Co., 1906.

## BOOK REVIEWS

*Principles of Secondary Education: The Studies.* By CHARLES DEGARMO.  
New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. 299.

Education is one of the oldest of the arts and one of the newest of the sciences. It has been practiced in some form, ever since there were fathers and mothers and priests; but until this day, and at this day, the majority of those who practice the art are ignorant of the science, or contemptuously skeptical whether there be any science of teaching. Preparation for teaching is generally supposed to consist of the possession of information, and teaching itself, of the act of imparting information. There have, from time to time, appeared seers who perceived that the teacher must know, not only his subject, but the child, the adolescent. Comenius, Pestalozzi, Froebel, Rousseau, were veritable prophets, but "their own received them not," at least not generally. Yet it was not long before their message was understood, so far as it related to children, and the science of elementary education has since their days been in steadily increasing honor. It has been reserved for our own time to advocate and to formulate a science of secondary teaching. Educational magazine literature has for the few years just past been pretty abundantly supplied with discussions of its aspects. But only now the first book in English to take this subject up in a thorough way has appeared. President Hall's great work on *Adolescence* is not forgotten. But, so far as regards the distinctive study of secondary education, it must be said that Dr. DeGarmo's book is the first in the field. The name of the author and the title will arouse general interest in the volume, and this interest will be sustained by the contents. Every student of education will be glad of the book, and will further be glad that another volume is to follow.

This book, as its subtitle indicates, is mainly concerned with the questions of selection, classification, function and relative educational worth, and organization into curricula of the studies suitable for secondary schools. These subjects are discussed in five chapters, the first being devoted to a consideration of the bases for selection, which in the past have been (1) the status of the persons to be educated; (2) the ruling ideals of the time, nation, or curriculum-maker; (3) the range of suitable knowledge available. The extension of the modern programme of study and the drift away from concentration in the narrow fixed curriculum are traced to the development of democracy and the variation in ideals, and the enrichment of the material for study.

In Dr. DeGarmo's classification of the studies themselves (chap. ii) we are carried beyond the traditional groups foreshadowed in the ancient Trivium and Quadrivium, for he proposes a threefold group: (1) the natural sciences, (2) the humanities, (3) economic science, the third division arising from the union of science of man with science of nature. The function and relative educational worth of the studies embraced in these three groups, respectively, are considered in detail in the two following chapters, the first group being subdivided into (1) the exact sciences (mathematics, physics, chemistry, astronomy), (2) the biological sciences (botany, zoölogy, psychology), (3) the earth sciences (geology,

mathematical geography, physical and political geography); the second, considered under the heads (1) languages, (2) the fine arts, (3) history. One has only to be told that a modern philosopher, psychologist, and educator is treating of "the function relative and relative educational value" of these subjects of study, to be eager to learn what he has to say. It will not be expected that he will develop without radical modification the view held less than a generation ago, particularly since the avowed purpose of such treatment is to show that "most if not all the effects hitherto ascribed to formal discipline are better explained by a careful analysis of relative educational value as based upon the contents of the studies themselves." A like interest attaches to the fifth and closing chapter of studies in the curricula. Here the reader comes upon a fresh discussion of the twofold aspect of all school studies—"knowledge and technique"—and a fresh exposition of what Professor O'Shea calls the "dynamic factors in education." Then follows a consideration of "Principles of Selection and Arrangement," "Prescription and Election of Studies," and "Correlation of High-School Studies."

The author's list of high-school studies is infelicitous in including philosophy, which, we are told on page 94, is "not a subject of high-school study." The diagram illustrating this part of the general discussion has probably found its chief use in the interest with which the author wrought it out as a translation into graphic expression of what he had set forth in the text. Certain parts of the book, which are in a sense incidental to its main purposes, are by no means of secondary value. The treatment, in the Introduction, of the "Social and the Individual Bases of Education" is a contribution to the literature of the subject. The question of "formal discipline" is discussed in an illuminating way, as is also the subject of the six-year high school. Typical American and foreign secondary-school programmes, including manual-training and commercial high-school programmes, occupy eighty pages of the appendix.

Dr. DeGarmo's book is sure to have a much wider reading than it seems to invite by its title-page, wherein it is declared to be a "textbook."

NATHANIEL BUTLER

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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*American Problems: Essays and Addresses.* By JAMES H. BAKER. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1907. Pp. 222.

Those to whom President Baker, of the University of Colorado, is known, either personally or professionally, recognize in him a forceful leader whose philosophy of life is markedly idealistic; one who not only preaches the doctrine of idealism, but who seeks also to make his idealism and his optimism the controlling factors in the formulation of his social and educational creeds.

The volume before me, *American Problems*, comprises a number of miscellaneous essays and addresses which have been roughly grouped under the several captions, "Ideals," "Sociological Problems," and "Education." The apparently divergent topics treated of are knit together by a characteristic thread that the author has spun from his thoughtful analysis of the hopeful strivings of our civilization toward the ideals of democracy. Without bias or fulsomeness he has aimed consistently, directly, and clear-sightedly to bring to view some of those things that constitute the real warp and woof of our American life.

The seven chapters making up the "Ideals" group are worthy and inspiring

reading, revealing, as they do, several civilization sketches that a forceful American thought has painted in colors of a Rooseveltian shade upon an idealistic background. In the first three, "Americanism," "The Real Utopia," and "Leadership in a Democracy," President Baker has given us the product of the application of his healthy and sane optimism to some of the present-day American social and political problems. The necessity of a great national, unifying ideal, founded on individual worth and brought near to realization through virile and discerning leadership, furnishes him with a text for the expression of much that is significant for a progress that is to fulfil the mission of democracy.

"An Example for Statesmen," evidently a commencement address, finds its inspiration from Gladstone's life and service in the causes of social and political reform. Likewise, the theme of "An American Preacher" is drawn from the career of Phillips Brooks. The idealism and the capacity for leadership, as well as for service, which each of these men displayed have afforded the author a valuable opportunity for teaching a lesson of effective American citizenship; an opportunity that he has utilized with more than passing effect. The last essay relating to ideals, "American Culture," contains such an analysis of our cultural ideal into its essential elements as one might readily anticipate from one who holds to a hopeful creed of progress.

The second section, devoted to "Sociological Problems," is the least satisfactory portion of the entire volume. Providing a discussion of the most fundamental aspects of present-day social theory and problems is to be concentrated within the short space of twenty pages, it might be admitted that the first essay of the group "Sociological Theories and Problems," fulfils its purpose fairly well. But such a procedure makes unsatisfactory reading for both layman and student. The author's treatment of certain practical aspects of sociology—the care and responsibility for defective, dependent, and delinquent classes—is decidedly sane, and, because sane, commonplace. So too with the remaining portions of the section. If one finds pleasure or profit here—and I confess I find both in the essay or address "Sociology and the Pulpit"—it is primarily because of the desire to know President Baker rather than the topic presented.

Of the half-dozen essays that are grouped under the heading of "Education," "The Teacher Taught" is an inspirational plea for the continued growth of the teacher; "Evolution and Education," a critical review of Hall's work on *Adolescence*; "The Culture Element and Economy of Time in Education," a plan for a pertinent inquiry into this very important aspect of American education; "Election in Secondary Schools," a statement of the author's well-known conservative position upon this point; "A National University," a reproduction of his discussion in favor of such an institution made at the meeting of the National Educational Association in 1901. For those who see no virtue in the argument that we need a national university the author's presentation may not be without value.

Good platform addresses are not often capable of being made into really good books. Much vitality is lost through translation to the printed page. *American Problems* is no exception to the general rule. The idealism, the optimism, and the doctrines of American character and social service, things for which President Baker stands as a foremost champion, need preaching and re preaching upon. This latest book of his should extend the influence of his

efforts. Though it must be said that it lacks the charm and fluency of expression that were characteristic of his somewhat similar volume of a few years ago—*Education and Life*. If one would know this man who has and is doing so much for the cause of American education, not only in his own state, but in the country at large, *American Problems* should not be neglected. If it lacks style, it is also without pedantry—a virtue not to be despised in this day of the making of many books.

EDWARD C. ELLIOTT

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
University of Wisconsin

*The Elements of Latin*. By CLIFFORD H. MOORE and JOHN T. SCHLICHER.  
New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1906. \$1.10.

This textbook, though having much in common with Moore's *First Latin Book*, is quite different from it, and is, in fact, an entirely new work. It contains a number of commendable features, and will probably prove itself a serviceable book. In general it follows a method which seems to meet with very general approval, as one well suited to pupils making their first acquaintance with Latin and Greek; that is, the paradigms are given to be learned outright, while the rules of syntax are deduced from specimen sentences.

The editors have shown considerable conservatism in retaining traditional views, which are now either under suspicion or are regarded by good authorities as wrong. For example: (a) the editors divide into syllables thus: *co-gno-sco*; (b) "... enclitics ... always throw an accent upon the syllable before them, even if that syllable is short," § 21; (c) "... a vowel is long before consonant *i*," § 16; (d) "Notice that in Latin there is no article," § 29 (a); (e) "*eu* pronounced as in *feud*," § 8; (f) the vowels of *hic* (nom. sg.) and *hoc* (nom. and acc. sg.) are marked long; (g) "*Is 'that'* is in meaning like *ille*, but is less definite" (italicized by the reviewer), § 151 (b); (h) the excellent distinction between "concessive," and "adversative" clauses is not adopted in § 472.

It should also be noted that in the Latin sentences occurring in the book the vocatives with few exceptions occupy the initial position; e.g., § 47, 5; 54, 8; 97, 6; 114, 6; 121, 3; 130, 3; 166, 1 and 9; 191, 2; 209, 10; 226, 9; 382, 7; exceptions: 318, 10; 382, 4; 392, 1; 438, 1; 517, 5.

While in general the authors are careful and even painstaking in the wording of their statements, the following appear for various reasons to be infelicitous: In § 29 (b) "endings" is used in the same sense in which "terminations" is used in § 34 (a); several vowels are unnecessarily marked with a breve on the same page on which the authors state that only long vowels are marked in their book, § 13; "*Regina puellam amat, 'The queen,'* (in contrast with the king or anyone else) '*loves the girl*,'" § 39, 1; "Narrabat and similar forms belong to the imperfect tense, which is equivalent to the English progressive past (*he was telling*), although we often translate by the English past definite (*he told*)," p. 18, note 3; "Notice that the perfect system of this verb [*sum*] is formed on a different stem from that of the present system," § 109 (a); "... The ideal conditions" (so-called less vivid future) "... in English always have *should* and *would* in both condition and conclusion," § 389 (a).

While no one would presume to recommend that Latin historical grammar

should be taught to beginners, yet most teachers will agree that phenomena of language should be so described to the students as not to misrepresent the changes that have taken place or instil erroneous ideas of the nature of language. For this reason the reviewer would scarcely approve the following:

P. 7, note 1. "The stem is the body of the word to which the endings are attached." ("Ending" is used on the same page in the sense of "termination.") "The last vowel of the stem, as we shall see, is sometimes changed when the ending is added."

§ 71 (a). "... *puer* keeps the *e* of the nominative throughout, while *ager* drops it."

§ 163 (b). "Notice also that when the last vowel of the stem is short, it is sometimes changed in the nominative singular: *milit*-, *miles*, etc."

§ 163 (a). "Stems ending in *t* drop their final consonant before *-s* of the nominative: (*milit-s*), *miles*."

But these shortcomings will scarcely prevent the book from finding friends and admirers in the schools.

C. L. MEADER

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

## BOOKS RECEIVED

### EDUCATION

*Das Buch vom Kinde: Ein Sammelwerk für die wichtigen Fragen der Kindheit, Bände I und II.* Herausgegeben von ADELE SCHREIBER, unter Mitarbeit zahlreicher hervorragender Fachleute. Leipzig und Berlin: B. G. Teubner, 1907. Pp. (Vol. I) xxv+231; (Vol. II) iv+216. Illustrated. M. 18.

*Classroom Management: Its Principles and Technique.* By WILLIAM CHANDLER BAGLEY. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. xvii+322. \$1.25.

*The Training of the Human Plant.* By LUTHER BURBANK. New York: The Century Co., 1907. Pp. 99. Frontispiece. \$0.60.

### ENGLISH

*The Major Dramas of Sheridan: The Rivals, The School for Scandal, The Critic.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by GEO. HENRY NETTLETON. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. cxvii+331. Frontispiece. \$0.90.

*The Merchant of Venice: The New Hudson Shakespeare.* Introduction and Notes by HENRY N. HUDSON. Edited and revised by EBENEZER C. BLACK, with the co-operation of ANDREW J. GEORGE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. xli+143. With chronological chart. \$0.50.

*As You Like It: The New Hudson Shakespeare.* Same as above. Pp. xxviii+152. With chronological chart. \$0.50.

*Scott's Quentin Durward.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by R. W. BRUERE. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. xxxi+504. \$0.50.

*Goldsmith's The Deserted Village.* Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by LOUISE POUND. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. xxviii+32. \$0.20.

*The Short-Story: Its Principles and Structure.* By EVELYN MAY ALBRIGHT. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1907. Pp. 260.

- A Practical Guide for Authors in Their Relations with Publishers and Printers.*  
By WILLIAM STONE BOOTH. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1907. Pp. 180. \$0.50.

## LATIN AND GREEK

- Helps to the Reading of Classical Latin Poetry.* By LEON JOSIAH RICHARDSON.  
Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Pp. 66. \$0.50.
- A First Latin Book.* By WILLIAM GARDNER HALE. Chicago and Boston: Atkinson, Mentzer & Grover, 1907. Pp. xvi+354.

## FRENCH

- Through France and The French Syntax: A Book of French Composition.* By ROBERT LOUIS SANDERSON. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1906. Pp. xiii+153. With colored map. \$0.65.
- A Scientific French Reader.* With Notes and Vocabulary. Compiled by FRANCIS HAROLD DIKE. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co. Pp. 334. Illustrated. \$1.

## GERMAN

- Goethe's Faust: Erster Teil.* Edited, with Introduction and Commentary, by JULIUS GOEBEL. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1907. Pp. lxi+384.

## SCIENCE

- A Guide for Laboratory and Field Work in Zoölogy.* By HENRY R. LINVILLE and HENRY A. KELLY. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. 104. \$0.35.
- Exercises in Chemistry.* By WILLIAM MCPHERSON and WILLIAM E. HENDERSON. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. 69. Illustrated. \$0.40.
- From Trail to Railway through the Appalachians.* By ALBERT PERRY BRIGHAM. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1907. Maps and Illustrations. Pp. 186. \$0.50.

## NOTES AND NEWS

Mr. George Herbert Locke, formerly editor of the *School Review* and dean of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, and now with Messrs. Ginn & Company, has accepted a call to the deanship of the Teacher's College of McGill University.

Dr. A. Ross Hill, who has been dean of the Teacher's College of the State University of Missouri, has accepted a call to the deanship of the Schools of Arts and Sciences in Cornell University.

The following notes from the Boston schools constitute the first installment of a series which the *School Review* hopes to publish from the schools of the leading cities of the country. It is hoped in this way to make concrete some phases of the evolution of the public schools in our great municipalities.

Boston maintains seven special classes for mentally defective children. This year there has been appointed an official, called the medical inspector of special classes, who gives attention to the examination of backward children for the purpose of determining whether they may be more properly assigned

to the special classes. The number of children in a special class is limited to fifteen. The course of study in these classes is very materially modified and includes a very large amount of manual training.

For many years the course of study in the high schools of Boston has been entirely elective. During the present year this freedom of electives has been considerably modified. Under the new course of study a diploma is awarded to pupils who have won 76 points. The amount of work represented by one period a week for one year in any study counts as one point toward winning a diploma. The points offered for a diploma must include 6 points in physical training, 1 point in hygiene, 3 points in choral practice, at least 13 points in English, at least 7 points in one foreign language or in phonography and typewriting, at least 4 points in mathematics or in bookkeeping, at least 3 points in history, at least 3 points in science, not more than 15 points for drawing. Household science and arts, manual training and music combined are allowed to count toward a diploma.

The departments of drawing and manual training in the Boston public schools have been maintained for many years as separate departments. Beginning with last September, they were combined into one department under the directorship of Mr. Walter Sargent, who was for many years director of manual arts in the state of Massachusetts. Mr. Frank M. Leavitt, formerly principal of the manual training schools, has become assistant director of the department of drawing and manual training.

Last September the Boston School Committee passed regulations providing for the establishment of disciplinary classes in which the attempt will be made to take care of boys who would otherwise need to be sent to the school for truants known as the Parental School. One such class has been established, and it has met with great success. It has been placed in charge of a superior teacher, and all the boys assigned thereto have been doing excellent work. These classes will undoubtedly be increased in number as the needs demand.

The method of appointing substitutes in the Boston public schools has been radically revised during the present school year. Hitherto the principals of schools have found their own substitutes. This necessitated a good deal of absence from their regular work. Under the new system, the appointment of substitutes is placed in charge of a supervisor who has a central office connected by telephone with all the districts. When a teacher is absent, notice is sent at once to the supervisor of substitutes, and a suitable substitute is sent to the school in question. During school hours this supervisor visits these substitutes, rendering them all possible assistance.

Next September the Boston Normal School will, for the first time in its existence, be placed in a suitable building. The Normal-Latin School group of buildings is just being completed at an expenditure of nearly a million dollars. This group will house the Normal School, the Girls' Latin School, and the High School of Commerce.

The Board of Superintendents of the Boston public schools has recommended the establishment of a Girls' High School of Practical Arts to be opened in September, 1907. The success of the High School of Commerce, established last fall for boys, has increased the belief that similar provision should be made for girls, and the recommendation of this High School of Practical Arts is the result.

From 1818 to 1906 the Boston schools have been organized into primary and grammar schools, the primary schools including the first three grades and the grammar schools the six other grades. Promotion from the primary to the grammar schools was made by the Board of Superintendents, and teachers could not be transferred from one of these schools to the other without special permission in each case being granted by the School Committee. Under the new administration, which went into effect January 1, 1906, these distinctions have been discontinued, and the elementary schools have been organized into one group running from the first through to the eighth grade. This reorganization will materially improve the efficiency of the schools.

Boston has recently adopted a new system of high-school organization whereby in each school there will be six heads of departments. Hitherto all teachers in high schools were of equal rank. The maximum annual salary of the man who becomes head of a department will be \$3,204.

Boston has for many years had nine grades instead of eight in the elementary schools. Last September the School Committee voted to reduce the number of grades to eight. The Board of Superintendents has, during the year, prepared a revision of the course of study, and the schools are now in process of being changed from the nine- to the eight-grade basis.

During the last school year Boston has established a system of leaves of absence on half-pay for teachers who desire to study and travel. Any teacher who has completed seven years of service in the public schools of Boston may, on the recommendation of the superintendent, be granted leave of absence on half-pay for a period not exceeding one year. During this year the teacher must make such reports as the superintendent may require. A teacher taking this leave of absence shall file with the secretary of the board an agreement in writing, binding the teacher to remain in the service of the board for three years after the expiration of such leave of absence, or, in case of resignation within said three years, to refund to the board such proportion of the amount paid him for the time included in the leave of absence as the unexpired portion of said three years may bear to the entire three years. The provisions of this agreement do not apply to resignation on account of ill-health, with the consent of the board, nor to resignation at the request of the board. After twenty-one years of service in the public schools of this city a similar leave of absence, not exceeding one year on half-pay, may be granted for the purpose of rest. This regulation has been in operation since

September 1, 1906, and many teachers have already taken advantage of its liberal provisions.

Boston has adopted a merit system of appointment of teachers. All persons desiring employment in the public schools of the city of Boston must be examined by the Board of Superintendents, and those who obtain certificates are rated by the board in the order of their merit. Appointments are limited to the highest three on the proper eligible list. Forty per cent. of the rating is determined by the length, character, and quality of the teaching experience, and 60 per cent. is based upon the scholastic attainments as shown by the examination. This system has completely removed political influence in the question of appointments.

The investigation by the Board of superintendents of the public schools of Boston disclosed the following facts with reference to the actual number of pupils in attendance in the elementary schools during the year 1906:

NUMBER OF PUPILS TO A TEACHER, 1906

Cities in Order of Their Population	Maximum by Rule	Actual Average Number
New York.....	50	43.0
Chicago.....	48	46.8
Philadelphia.....	40	45.0
St. Louis.....	50 in upper grades 55 in lower grades	45.0
Boston.....	50 42 in first grade	49.7 43.7 in first grade
Baltimore.....	No regulation	39.0 grammar 47.0 primary
Cleveland.....	45	42.0
Buffalo.....	45	40.0 grammar 45.0 primary
Cincinnati.....	40	38.0 grammar 39.0 primary
Worcester.....	48	40.0 grammar 45.0 primary
Fall River.....	No regulation	35.0 grammar 30.0 primary
Lowell.....	60 (permitted)	36.0 grammar 37.0 primary
Cambridge.....	No regulation	40.5 grammar 42.6 primary
Lynn.....	No regulation	41.0 grammar 36.0 primary
Lawrence.....	No regulation	35.5
New Bedford.....	No regulation	40.0 grammar 43.0 primary
Springfield.....	40	38.0
Somerville.....	No regulation	45.0 grammar 46.2 primary

As a result thereof the School Committee has adopted a regulation providing for the gradual reduction in the number of pupils assigned to each teacher from 50 to 44 in grades above the first. The present regulation of 42 in the first grade remains.

## ADVANCE PROGRAMMES OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

The following programmes are subject to additions and changes as late as June 20, when the final edition of the Official Programme will be printed for use at the Los Angeles convention:

The Annual Meeting of the Board of Directors will occur on Monday, July 8, at 11:00 A. M.

The meetings of Active Members of the several states to nominate candidates for appointment on the Committee on Nominations, in accordance with By-Law No. 1, will occur at 5:30 P. M., July 8, at their respective state headquarters or at places named in the final edition of the Official Programme.

The Annual Meeting of Active Members for the election of officers, and for other business, will occur at 12 M., Wednesday, July 10.

### GENERAL SESSIONS

All General Sessions will be held in the Temple Auditorium.

#### MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 8

Music and Prayer—

Address of Welcome—Rev. Robert J. Burdette, Pasadena, Cal.

Response—Hon. W. T. Harris, Washington, D. C.

1. President's Address—How Can the School Aid the Peace Movement, Nathan C. Schaeffer, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa., President of the National Educational Association.

2. Education and Democracy, A. B. Storms, President of Iowa State College, Ames, Ia.

Appointment of Committee on Resolutions.

#### TUESDAY EVENING, JULY 9

Prayer.

1. Greeting from a Sister Republic, Senor Justo Sierra, Minister Public Instruction, Mexico.

2. The Personality of the Teacher, Rt. Rev. T. J. Conaty, Bishop of Los Angeles.

3. The School in its Economic Relations, W. O. Thompson, President of Ohio State University, Columbus, O.

Discussion.

Appointment of Committee on Nominations.

#### WEDNESDAY EVENING, JULY 10

Prayer.

1. Shall Teachers' Salaries be Graded on Merit or by the Clock—E. G. Cooley, Superintendent of City Schools, Chicago, Ill.

2. Teachers' Pensions and Annuities—Chas. H. Keyes, Superintendent of South District Schools, Hartford, Conn.

3. Other Forms of Compensation for Teachers—George W. Nash, President State Normal and Industrial School, Aberdeen, S. D.

Discussion—Alex. Hogg, Superintendent of City Schools, Fort Worth, Tex.

#### THURSDAY EVENING, JULY 11

Prayer.

1. School for Defectives in Connection with the Public Schools—C. G. Pearse, Superintendent of City Schools, Milwaukee, Wis.

2. The School and the Library—J. W. Olsen, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, St. Paul, Minn.
3. The School and Women's Organizations—To be supplied.  
Discussion.

## FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 12

Prayer.

1. Address, "Call Nothing Common"—Benjamin Ide Wheeler, President of State University, Berkeley, Cal.
2. A Significant Lack of Educational Terminology—Professor John Adams, University College, London, England.

Report of Committee on Resolutions.

Closing Exercises.

## DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

President, Mrs. Alice Woodworth Cooley, Grand Forks, N. D.

Vice-President, Clarence F. Carroll, Rochester, N. Y.

Secretary, Mrs. Josephine W. Heermans, Kansas City, Mo.

## WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 10

Topic: Potent Factors in Teaching Oral Reading and Oral Language.

- a) The Use of Story and Poem—Henry Suzzallo, Department of Education, Stanford University, Cal.

Discussion of Story Telling—Miss Emma C. Davis, Supervisor of Primary Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.

- b) Dramatizing—Thos. C. Blaisdell, Department of English, State Agricultural College, Mich.

- c) Conduct of Daily Recitations in Geography and History—(Speaker to be supplied.)

- d) Expression by Hand—I. C. McNeil, Superintendent of Public Schools, Memphis, Tenn.

General Discussion led by John S. Welch, Supervisor of Grammar Grades, Public Schools, Salt Lake City, Utah.

## FRIDAY MORNING, JULY 12

Topic: Geography and History in the Life of the Pupil.

1. Geography—Leader, James F. Chamberlain, Los Angeles, Cal.

- a) Casual Notion in Class Work—James F. Chamberlain, Los Angeles Normal School, Los Angeles, Cal.

- b) Illustrative Excursions for "Field Sight."

- c) Emphasis of Commercial and Industrial Geography—Leader of Discussion, S. L. Heeter, Superintendent of Schools, St. Paul, Minn.

2. History in the Life of the Pupil (Speaker to be supplied).

## DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

President, Eugene W. Lytle, Albany, N. Y.

First Vice-President, Wilson Farrand, Newark, N. J.

Second Vice-President, Edwin Twitmyer, Bellingham, Wash.

Secretary, Philo M. Buck, St. Louis, Mo.

## TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 9

Joint Session with Departments of Higher Education and Normal Schools  
(For Programme see Department of Higher Education)

## WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 10

## Round-Table Conferences

- a. The Preparation of the High School Teacher. Leader, Reuben Post Halleck, Principal of Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.  
Discussion by H. M. Barrett, Principal of High School, Pueblo, Colo.; Frederick E. Bolton, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa; Stratton D. Brooks, Superintendent of Schools, Boston; J. Stanley Brown, Superintendent of Township High School, Joliet, Ill.; Edward F. Buchner, Professor of Philosophy and Education, University of Alabama; John W. Cook, President of Northern Illinois State Normal School, DeKalb, Ill.; E. P. Bubberley, Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Jr. University; Charles DeGarmo, Professor of Science and Art of Education, Cornell University; Edwin G. Dexter, Professor of Education, University of Illinois; Paul H. Hanus, Professor of Education, Harvard University; E. O. Holland, Associate Professor of Education and High School Inspector, University of Indiana; C. H. Judd, Assistant Professor of Psychology, Yale University; John R. Kirk, President of State Normal School, Kirksville, Mo.; George W. A. Luckey, Professor of Education, University of Nebraska; George H. Martin, Secretary of Massachusetts Board of Education; M. V. O'Shea, Professor of Science and Art of Education, University of Wisconsin.
- b. Mathematics. Leader, Charles Ammerman, Head of Department of Mathematics, The William McKinley High School, St. Louis, Mo.
  1. Graphic Algebra—E. H. Barker, Principal of High School, Nevada City, Cal.
  2. Problems for Mechanical Expertness in Elementary Algebra—C. M. Ritter, Former President State Normal School, Chico, Cal.
  3. Original Demonstrations in Geometry.
    - a) Purpose, Nature and Method of Presentation. Fletcher Durrell, Teacher of Mathematics, John C. Green School, Lawrenceville, N. J.
    - b) Time of Introductions and Limitations—George Alvin Snook, Teacher of Mathematics, Central High School, Philadelphia, Pa.
- c. History. Leader, C. E. Locke, Teacher of History in the Polytechnic High School, Los Angeles, Cal.
  1. The Notebook in History Classes: Its Value and Its Limitations—Miss Ada I. Atkinson, Head of the History Department, High School, Omaha, Neb.  
Discussion led by Jas. E. McKnown, Principal of the Seattle High School, Seattle, Wash.; G. A. Thompson, Principal of the Alameda High School, Alameda, Cal.
  2. Place of Modern History in the High School Curriculum—E. I. Miller, Teacher of History, State Normal School, Chico, Cal.  
Discussion led by R. D. Hunt, Principal of High School, San José, Cal.
- d. Science. Leader, Lewis B. Avery, Superintendent of Schools, Redlands, Cal.
  1. The Value and Limitations of Quantitative Experiments in Physics and Chemistry—George C. Buch, Principal of Schools, South Pasadena, Cal.; W. F. Kunzo, Principal Cleveland High School, Cleveland, Ohio.
  2. The Use of the Microscope in Biology Classes:
    - a) The Purpose of Work with the Microscope—Wm. M. Kern, President of the State Manual Training School, Ellendale, N. D.

- b) The Kinds of Microscope Work Valuable for High School Students—H. F. Wegener, Principal High School, Tacoma, Wash.
  - c) Training Students to Use the Microscope—J. B. Lillard, Teacher of Biology, The Wm. McKinley High School, St. Louis, Mo.
- Discussion led by Carl J. Ulrich, Central High School, Duluth, Minn.  
Results of Improved Methods of Physic Teaching—(to be supplied).

## THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 11

Topic: The Relation of the High Schools to Industrial Life.

- a) The Function and the Value of the Commercial Course—J. H. Francis, Principal of the Polytechnic High School, Los Angeles, Cal.
- b) The Function and the Value of the Manual Training Course—J. Stanley Brown, Superintendent of Township High School, Joliet, Ill.
- c) The Function and the Value of the Agricultural Course—A. B. Graham, Professor in Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
- d) Report of Committee on Six Year Courses of Study—Gilbert B. Morrison, Principal of The Wm. McKinley High School, St. Louis, Mo.

## DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

President, William Lowe Bryan, Bloomington, Ind.

Vice-President, George A. Gates, Claremont, Cal.

Secretary, Oscar J. Craig, Missoula, Mont.

## TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 9

Joint Session with Departments of Normal Schools and Secondary Education

Topic: The Preparation of High School Teachers.

- a) From the Standpoint of the Normal School—Lewis H. Jones, President State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.
- b) From the Standpoint of the High School—Report of the Committee on the Preparation of High School Teachers—Reuben Post Halleck, Principal Boys' High School, Louisville, Ky.
- c) From the Standpoint of the University—Alexis Frederick Lange, Dean of the Faculty of the College of Letters, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

## WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 10

The Care of Freshmen—William O. Thompson, President Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

Discussion led by Fletcher Bascom Dresslar, Associate Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

Religious Education in the State Universities—Professor Wallace N. Stearns, Wesley College, Grand Forks, N. D.

## DEPARTMENT OF MANUAL TRAINING

President, Frank M. Leavitt, Boston, Mass.

Vice-President, R. Charles Bates, Port Deposit, Md.

Secretary, Oscar L. McMurry, Chicago, Ill.

## TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 9

Joint Session with Department of Art Education

Topic: The Development of an Adequate Course of Study in Manual Training for Elementary Grades

- a) From the Point of View of the Teacher of Manual Arts—George W. Eggers, Head of Department of Art, Chicago Normal School, Chicago, Ill.

- b) From the Point of View of Child Study—Fletcher B. Dresslar, Associate Professor Department of Education, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.  
 c) From the Point of View of the School Superintendent—(Speaker to be announced).

Discussion led by Thomas A. Mott, Superintendent of Schools Richmond, Ind.

THURSDAY MORNING, JULY 11

Topic: The Relation of Industrial Education to Public Instruction.

- a) Manual Training Versus Industrial Training in the High School—B. W. Johnson, Director of Manual Training, Public Schools, Seattle, Wash.  
 b) Can the School Life of Pupils be Prolonged by an Adequate Provision for Industrial Training in the Upper Grammar Grades?—Jesse D. Burks, Principal of Teachers Training School, Albany, N. Y.  
 c) Industrial Training as Viewed by a Manufacturer—Magnus W. Alexander, Engineer in Charge of Drawing, Office General Electric Company, Lynn, Mass., Vice-President National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education.

Discussion.

FRIDAY MORNING, JULY 12

Joint Session with Department of Indian Education

1. Rational Art and Manual Training in Rural Schools—Elbert H. Eastmond,

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2. Manual Training in the Indian Schools—M. Friedman, Assistant Superintendent Haskell Indian Institute, Lawrence, Kan.
3. (To be announced)

#### DEPARTMENT OF ART EDUCATION

President, Eugene C. Colby, Albany, N. Y.

Vice-President, Miss May Earhart, Los Angeles, Cal.

Secretary, Miss Helen E. Lucas, Rochester, N. Y.

#### TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 9

Joint Session with the Department of Manual Training  
(For Programme see Department of Manual Training)

#### WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 10

1. Address of Welcome—Joseph Scott, President of the Board of Education, Los Angeles, Cal.
2. Address by the President—Eugene C. Colby, Supervisor of Drawing and Manual Training, State of New York, Albany, N. Y.
3. The Relation of Art Education to Everyday Life—
  - a) From the Culture Side—Randall J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Helena, Mont.

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- b) From the Utilitarian Side—Arthur H. Chamberlain, Dean and Professor of Education, Throop Polytechnic Institute, Pasadena, Cal.  
Discussion.

## FRIDAY MORNING, JULY 12

1. University Entrance Credits in Drawing—A. B. Clark, Stanford University, Cal.
2. Visualization or Snap Shot Drawing, Langdon S. Thompson, Supervisor of Drawing, Jersey City, N. J.
3. Object Drawing—Miss Edna B. Lowd, Teacher of Drawing, Los Angeles, Cal.  
Discussion led by Mrs. H. T. Jenkins, Director of Drawing, Pomona College, Claremont, Cal.

## DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION

President, H. M. Rowe, Baltimore, Md.  
First Vice-President, James T. Young, Philadelphia, Pa.  
Second Vice-President, W. H. Wagner, Los Angeles, Cal.  
Secretary, Horace G. Heale, New York, N. Y.

## TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 9

1. President's Address—H. M. Rowe, Baltimore, Md.
2. Topic: Preparation and Improvement of Commercial Teachers.
  - a) Present Standards of Commercial Instruction with Present Requirements for Commercial Teachers—James J. Sheppard, Principal of High School of Commerce, New York City.  
Discussion led by James Ferguson, Department of Commerce, Mission High School, San Francisco, Cal.
  - b) Available Means and Additional Means Required for the Preparation of Commercial Teachers—H. B. Brown, President of Valparaiso University, Valparaiso, Ind.  
Discussion led by E. K. Isaacs, Woodbury Business College, Los Angeles, Cal.
  - c) Ways for Improving Commercial Teachers Now at Work.—F. C. Weber, Polytechnic High School, Los Angeles, Cal.  
Discussion.

## WEDNESDAY MORNING, JULY 10

- Topic: Study of Methods as Applied in Teaching the Commercial Branches.
- a) Necessary Adaptation of General Pedagogic Practice in Teaching the Commercial Branches in High Schools and in Private Schools—D. W. Springer, Director of Commercial Department, High School, Ann Arbor, Mich.  
Discussion.
  - b) Co-ordination of Individual and Class Instruction in Commercial Branches—F. F. Showers, Stevens Point Business College, Stevens Point, Wis.  
Discussion led by Thomas H. H. Knight, Girls High School, Boston, Mass.
  - c) Rational Development of the Practical Features of the General and Special Commercial Branches to Meet the Requirements of Present Commercial and Industrial Conditions—J. M. Green, Principal of State Normal School, Trenton, N. J.  
Discussion led by J. H. Francis, Principal of Polytechnic High School, Los Angeles, Cal.

## DEPARTMENT OF CHILD STUDY

President, Edwin G. Dexter, Urbana, Ill.

Vice-President, Henry H. Goddard, West Chester, Pa.

Secretary, Charles W. Waddle, Austin, Tex.

## TUESDAY MORNING, JULY 9

1. A Study. The Delinquent and Dependent Child in its Home Environment as a School Problem—J. K. Stableton, Superintendent of Schools, Bloomington, Ill.
2. Child Study in the Education of Women—Miss Jessie B. Allen, State Normal School, Los Angeles, Cal.
3. The Training of the Child's Emotional Life—Henry Suzzallo, Assistant Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford University, Cal.
4. The Relation of Child Study to the Moral Training of the Child—C. C. Van Liew, President of State Normal School, Chico, Cal.

## THURSDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 11

Topic: The Contributions of Twenty-Five Years of Organized Child Study in America to Educational Theory and Practice.

- a) As applied to the Kindergarten and the Elementary Grades—Ella Flagg Young, Principal of the Chicago Normal School, Chicago, Ill.

Discussion led by Manfred J. Holmes, Professor of Psychology, State Normal University, Normal, Ill.

- b) As applied to the Grammar Grades—Professor F. B. Dresslar, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

Discussion led by Margaret E. Shallenberger, State Normal School, San José, Cal.

- c) As applied to the High School—A. H. Yoder, Superintendent of Schools, Tacoma, Wash.

Discussion led by E. O. Sisson, Professor in the University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.

- d) The Child-Study Movement in Los Angeles—Geo. L. Leslie, Director of Science Department, City Schools, Los Angeles, Cal.

